

THE UNIVERSITY

OF THE STATE OF TEXAS

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DESCRIPTION
OF
OREGON AND CALIFORNIA,
EMBRACING
AN ACCOUNT OF
THE GOLD REGIONS;

TO WHICH IS ADDED,
AN APPENDIX,
CONTAINING DESCRIPTIONS OF VARIOUS KINDS OF
GOLD, AND METHODS OF TESTING
ITS GENUINENESS.

WITH A LARGE AND ACCURATE
MAP OF OREGON AND CALIFORNIA,
COMPILED FROM THE LATEST AUTHORITIES.

PHILADELPHIA:
THOMAS, COWPERTHWAIT & CO.
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OREGON AND CALIFORNIA.

THE map of Oregon and California represents that part of the west coast of North America which extends from north latitude 32° to $54^{\circ} 40'$, and from the Pacific Ocean to the Rocky Mountains. It includes an extent of country one-fourth the size of Europe, being 1560 miles in length, with a breadth varying from 350 to 800 miles, and an area of about 825,000 square miles, or 528,000,000 acres.

Oregon forms the southern part of the "North-west Coast," a term used in the United States to designate that portion of country lying along the shores of the Pacific Ocean, from Cape Mendocino, in north latitude 40° , to Cape Prince of Wales, in latitude about 65° . The northern section of California, reaching from the sea 800 miles eastward to the Rocky Mountains, and two degrees of latitude in width south of Oregon, being about a fourth part of the territory which is included within the bounds of the "North-west Coast." The term in question was derived from the circumstance of the part of the country to which it is applied lying in a direction north-west from the settled districts of the United States.

The coast of California, as well as most part of the coast of Oregon, differs essentially from that on the Atlantic in the same latitudes. The Atlantic coast is low and open, indented with numerous bays, sounds, and river estuaries, accessible everywhere, and opening by many channels into the interior. The Pacific coast, as far north as Cape Flattery, is high and compact, with few bays, and but one (the Columbia river) that opens a passage of any importance into the heart of the country. The immediate coast is bold and abrupt, being of the character that seamen call iron-bound; some distance inland it is skirted by ranges of mountains, standing as ramparts between it and the interior country. From about latitude 34° to 38° hardly an island is to be met with, and

the harbours are few and inefficient, except in the case of the Bay of San Francisco; but from Cape Flattery, the southern boundary of the Strait of Juan de Fuca, the coast assumes, in going northward, a different aspect: the continent, as well as the larger islands, though the shores are still elevated, is indented with innumerable gulfs, bays, sounds, harbours, &c. Various narrow passages, or canals, as they are chiefly called, run up into the interior, forming numerous islands, and containing many fine harbours, that are destined doubtless at some future period to teem with a busy population.

Within the Strait of Juan de Fuca and the Gulf of Georgia the rise and fall of the tides is about eighteen feet, and the depth of water is in most cases sufficient for large-sized merchantmen. South of Cape Flattery the harbours at the mouths of rivers are generally obstructed by sand-bars, and even the mouth of the Columbia is impracticable for a considerable part of the year, during which time it is equally dangerous to leave it. In the year 1841, the U. S. sloop-of-war Peacock, belonging to the exploring expedition, was wrecked at the mouth of the Columbia, and several merchantmen have also been lost near the same spot.

Oregon and California are bounded on the east by the Rocky Mountains, which extend, under different names, from the Arctic Ocean to the Isthmus of Darien, where they connect with the Andes of South America. Southward of latitude 40° north, they are called the Anahuac Mountains, and farther south the Sierra de los Mimbres, the Sierra Madre, and the Mexican Cordilleras; the whole range extends in a direction from north-west to south-east, and at different distances from the coast. In latitude 40° it is about 750 miles from the Pacific, while in $54^{\circ} 40'$ it is not more than half that distance.

Between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean both Oregon and California are traversed by two, and in some parts three, lofty ridges, which divide the country into distinct belts or regions. The most elevated portion of the Rocky Mountain chain is about the $52\frac{1}{2}$ degree of north latitude. Mount Brown and Mount

Hooker, its most lofty peaks, are respectively 16,000 and 15,700 feet high; further southward the highest summit is Fremont's Peak, which is elevated 13,570 feet above the level of the Gulf of Mexico. This lofty peak is called after the enterprising officer whose name it bears, and who ascended to its summit August 15th 1842, and determined its height and character. On its western declivity the Green River, the head stream of the Colorado, and on the opposite side the Big Horn River, a tributary of the Yellow Stone, take their rise.

In these mountains many of the great rivers of North America have their sources, and flow hence to all points of the compass. Within a short distance of the South Pass there rise, on the eastern side, the Missouri, the Yellow Stone, the Platte, and the Arkansas, the waters of all of which are carried through the Mississippi into the Mexican Gulf, and the Rio Grande del Norte or Rio Bravo, which flows into the same arm of the Atlantic; while, on the western side, are found the sources of the Colorado, the Snake or Lewis, the Flat-head or Clarke's, and the main Columbia. Farther north rise the Saskatchewan, whose waters flow through Lake Winnipeg into Hudson's Bay, and the Athabasca and Peace Rivers, head tributaries of the Mackenzie, which winds its course to the Arctic Ocean.

The wild goat and sheep of the Rocky Mountains were long supposed to be peculiar to that range, and derived their names from that circumstance; but they are now known to abound also in the Sierra Nevada of California, as well as in the cascade range of Oregon. The first is as large as



Rocky Mountain Goat.

The first is as large as

the domestic sheep, its fleece hanging down on the sides like that of the Merino breed. The hair is long and straight, coarser than that of the sheep, but finer than



Rocky Mountain Sheep.

that of the common goat. Both these animals inhabit the most lofty peaks of the mountains, their range extending, it is said, from Lat. 40° to 65° . The Rocky Mountain, or big-horn sheep, is larger than any domestic sheep: the horns of the ram are immense. The hair is like that of the reindeer; at first short, fine, and flexible; but as winter advances, it becomes coarse, dry, and brittle; though it feels soft, it is then so close as to become erect. These animals collect in flocks of from three to thirty, the young rams and the females herding together, while the old rams form separate flocks. The horns of rams attain a size so enormous that they effectually prevent the animal from feeding upon level ground. The flesh is said to be superior to any domestic mutton.

In the Rocky Mountains there are several passages or gaps, through which travellers journey from one side of the continent to the other; that used by the traders of the Hudson's Bay Company is a tremendous cleft, overhung by the loftiest peaks of the great chain; it passes between Mount Brown and Mount Hooker, both of which rise far above the inferior limit of perpetual snow, and present a grand and imposing spectacle. Farther to the southward, in latitudes $46^{\circ} 30'$ and $44^{\circ} 30'$, are the gaps through which Lewis and Clarke travelled, in their journey to and from the opposite sides of the American continent. Still farther south, is the "South Pass," the most remarkable in the Rocky Mountains, and one of the

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most noted passes through a mountain chain in the world. It was discovered some years ago, and was explored and described by Captain Fremont, U. S. A., in the year 1842. The South Pass is at the head of the Sweetwater, a tributary of the Platte or Nebraska river, and at the base of the Wind River chain of the Rocky Mountains, in north latitude $42^{\circ} 25'$, longitude $32^{\circ} 10'$, west of Washington City, or $109^{\circ} 10'$ west of Greenwich. The Pass is from 15 to 20 miles wide, and so gradual in its ascent, from the plains east and west of it, that it is not very easy to determine precisely its culminating point, and wagons or travelling vehicles of any kind may pass through with as much ease as along a level and beaten road.

The chief river of the North-West Territory, is the Columbia or Oregon. It is the largest American stream which flows into the Pacific Ocean. Its main source is in the Rocky Mountains, about latitude 50 degrees north, whence it takes a course, at first north-west and then south, for a distance of 875 miles to its junction with the Lewis or Snake river, which joins it from the south-east, a few miles above Wallawalla; from hence to the ocean, the direction of the united stream is nearly west, and the distance 350 miles. The chief tributaries of the northern or main branch, are the Flat Bow or Kootanie, and Clarke's or M'Gillivray's, and Okanagan rivers.

Lewis, Snake, or Saptin river, is the great southern branch of the Columbia; from its source in the Rocky Mountains, north of Fremont's Peak, it has a course of about 780 miles; its rapids and falls greatly obstruct canoe navigation. The Kooskooskee, Salmon, and other rivers, both from the east and west, flow into it. At its confluence with the main stream, the Lewis river is 600 yards wide: at the same point the Columbia has a breadth of 1000 yards; in the latter, both above and below the junction, there are many obstructions; about 180 miles lower down are the Dalles, where there is a succession of rapids and falls in the river for several

miles; 40 miles below, and 130 miles from the sea, are the Cascades, where the river breaks through the Cascade range; its channel is here compressed into a narrow gorge, only 150 yards across, and its waters are hurried with great violence over its rocky bed; at the foot of the Cascades it meets the tide, and thence to the sea the river is rarely less than a mile broad; within six or seven leagues of the Pacific, it increases in width from two to four miles, and at its mouth its width is seven miles.

The Columbia preserves throughout its character as a river, being rapid in its current, and perfectly fresh and potable to within a league of the ocean, except during very dry seasons and the prevalence of violent westerly winds. Ships of 300 or 400 tons can ascend nearly to the foot of the Cascades; the navigation, especially of the lower part of the river, is somewhat dangerous, in consequence of its numerous shoals. The Columbia and its tributaries are famous for their salmon, which comprise six different species, and are all excellent eating; these fish are taken in great numbers by the Indians, as well as by the white settlers, chiefly at the foot of the various falls and rapids in the rivers; they begin to ascend from the sea about the middle of April, and in the course of three or four months are found at the heads of the remotest tributaries.

A short distance below the Cascades, the Willamette river enters the Columbia from the south; it rises on the west side of the Cascade range, in about latitude 44° north, and has a course of about 200 miles. In the valley of this stream, nearly all the American emigrants are settled; and at the falls, 15 miles from its mouth, is Oregon city, an American village of 50 or 60 houses; the country in the vicinity, and all along the coast to the southward, presents greater advantages of soil and climate than any other part of the territory. Near the southern boundary of Oregon, are the Umpqua and Klamet rivers, but neither of them offers any facilities for commercial communication; on the former, a few

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miles from its mouth, the Hudson's Bay Company have a trading post or fort.

The only other river of any note in Oregon, is Frazer's, the Tacoutchee Tesse of Mackenzie. It flows in a direction nearly south from the Rocky Mountains, into the Gulf of Georgia; its course is about 750 miles in length, and it drains with its tributaries nearly all the country between the parallels of 49° and 58° , and westward of the Rocky Mountains. Thompson's and Stuart's rivers are its chief branches; on all these rivers there are various trading posts of the Hudson's Bay Company established.

The Colorado, or Red River of California, so called from the colour of its waters, is the principal stream of California; it flows from the Wind River chain a south-south-west course of about 1100 miles, into the head of the Gulf of California. The country in its vicinity, for some distance from its mouth, is flat, and is overflowed during the rainy season, when the quantity of water discharged is very great, and high embankments are thus made by the deposit of mud on each side, similar to those on the Lower Mississippi. The region through which the Colorado flows is almost unknown, being still in possession of the native tribes. Green and Grand rivers are the largest of its upper branches; both rise within the limits of the United States—the first at the base of Fremont's Peak, and the other on the western side of Long's Peak. The Gila, the largest and most southern tributary of the Colorado, is a river of 500 miles in length, and flows from that part of the Rocky Mountain range called the Sierra de los Mimbres; the country on its banks, both north and south, is inhabited by Indian tribes, of which nothing is known except their names. How far the Colorado may be ascended by vessels from the gulf, is not known: from some accounts, it seems to be navigable for 300 or 400 miles, while, according to others, obstacles to the passage of vessels occur much nearer to the sea.

The other rivers of California worthy of note, are the

Sacramento and San Joaquin, both of which flow into the Bay of San Francisco, or Bay of Sir Francis Drake. The Sacramento rises in Oregon Territory, near the sources of the Fall river, a branch of the Columbia. It flows nearly south, draining the fine valley which lies between the Sierra Nevada and the coast range of mountains; after a course of 400 miles, it enters San Francisco Bay, nearly opposite to the mouth of the San Joaquin. It is supposed to be navigable for vessels of some burthen about 200 miles. On the Rio de los Americanos, (or river of the Americans,) one of its branches, is Nueva Helvetia, a recently founded American settlement. The San Joaquin flows from the south into San Francisco Bay; it is a smaller river than the Sacramento, and drains the southern part of the same valley; it rises also in the Sierra Nevada, and is in extent about 220 miles; during the annual overflow of the rivers in this quarter, it is connected with the Tule lakes, further south, but at other times the connecting stream is dried up, and ceases to flow. The inhabitants on the banks of these rivers, except a few American settlers on the Sacramento, are mostly Indians.

The Rio San Buenaventura is of less importance than either of the foregoing; it rises in the coast range, and flows nearly parallel with the shore of the Pacific, and at a distance of only 30 miles from it. It has a north-west course of about 130 miles, and falls into the Bay of Monterey. The other streams along the sea coast are mere rivulets, and the general infrequency of rivers and springs is the chief defect of the country, though water may be obtained in most places by digging.

The interior rivers of California are of little note, and are almost unknown. The Bear river is the chief feeder of the Great Salt lake, situated in the north-eastern part of California. It enters on the east side of the lake, and has a tortuous course of 250 or 260 miles, chiefly among high rugged mountains. Sevier river is a recent discovery, and was first described by Captain Fremont; its precise course is unknown; it flows probably into the

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Colorado. Mary's river is described by emigrants to California as flowing, for about 250 miles, along the northern edge of the Great Interior Desert, or Basin of California; it terminates in a small lake, or sink-hole, not far from the eastern base of the Sierra Nevada.

The regions on the Pacific side of North America differ in climate from those east of the Rocky Mountains, in the same latitudes. In the countries on the west side, of corresponding parallels with Wisconsin, Michigan, Canada, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland, the ground is rarely covered with snow for more than three or four weeks in each year, and it often remains unfrozen throughout the winter. In those opposite to Virginia and Carolina, the winter is merely a wet season, no rain falling at any other time; and in the Californian peninsula, which is included between the same parallels as Georgia and Florida, the temperature is as high as in any tropical region, and many years pass by without a shower or even a cloud.

Two of the largest islands of the north-west coast, Quadra and Vancouver's, and Queen Charlotte's, or Washington Island, lie off the coast of Oregon. The first named is 280 miles long, with 50 of average breadth, and is about equal in area to the states of Massachusetts and Connecticut. It is separated from the main land by the Gulf of Georgia. The other is much smaller and is farther from the continent: it is 180 long and about 30 in average breadth. It is probably about equal in surface to the state of Connecticut. These two islands, with those called Prince of Wales' and Sitcha Island, with the many smaller islands around them, have been termed the North West Archipelago.

The coasts of the larger islands, like that of Oregon, are indented with numerous bays and gulfs, and fringed with towering forests. The ground is wholly uncultivated, but it yields spontaneously an abundance of berries, onions, and other roots. The chief supplies are derived from the sea, which abounds with numerous species of excellent fish. Each tribe inhabits a particular

cove or island, and is ruled by a chief who maintains some degree of savage pomp. One of the earlier navigators found a chief occupying a house, consisting of one large apartment, in which his whole household of 800 persons sat, ate and slept. The door-posts and the rafters were supported by gigantic wooden images, rudely carved and painted, and the whole apartment was studiously adorned with festoons of human skulls. The chief's family occupied a raised platform at one end, on which were placed chests, containing their most valuable effects. Their repasts consisted of enormous quantities of blubber, fish-oil, and fish-soup.



Man and Woman of Quadra and Vancouver's Island.

The people have the usual Indian features, with complexions tolerably fair; but these they studiously disfigure by stripes of red ochre, and streams of fish-oil, mingled sometimes with a species of glittering black sand. Some of the tribes display extreme ferocity, and there is too much reason to believe that they are addicted to the horrid practice of cannibalism, human heads and hands being both displayed as trophies, and offered for sale. Yet, when a friendly intercourse was once established, their manners were found peculiarly mild, courteous, and engaging.

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OREGON TERRITORY.

OREGON is the name usually applied to that part of North America which is watered chiefly by the Columbia or Oregon river and its branches. Its political boundaries have not as yet been fixed by agreement between the parties claiming possession of it. The government of the United States considers them as embracing the whole territory west of the Rocky Mountains from the latitude of 42 degrees north to that of 54 degrees 40 minutes. The British government has, however, refused to acknowledge the right of the Americans to any portion north of the Columbia river.

This territory is bounded on the north and east as far south as the 49th degree of latitude by British America, and southward of the 49th degree on the east by Missouri territory, south by Mexico, and west by the Pacific Ocean. It is in length about 880 miles, with an average breadth of 550, and an area of 420,000 square miles. It is divided into three belts or sections separated by ranges of mountains running very nearly parallel with the shores of the Pacific Ocean. The first or western section lies between the sea and the Cascade or President's range. The second or middle section is between the Cascade and the Blue Mountains. The third or eastern section is between the Blue and the Rocky Mountains. These sections have a distinction of soil, climate and productions:

The first or Cascade range of mountains is continuous through the whole extent of Oregon, at a distance of from 80 to 140 miles inland; some of its peaks are from 12,000 to 14,000 feet above the level of the sea; and two of them, viz: Mount St. Helens and Mount Rainier, are said to be volcanoes. They are all several thousand feet

above the line of perpetual snow. The Blue Mountains, the second range, are irregular in their course, and occasionally interrupted by wide passes or gaps. Their distance from the coast varies from 250 to 330 miles. Eastward are the Rocky Mountains, which form the eastern boundary of the territory. The intervening valley is rocky, broken and barren, and but little suited for cultivation. Timber is generally scarce on the south side of the Columbia, but on the northern it is more plentiful. In its most elevated districts snow covers the ground all the year. It rarely rains here, and no dew falls. There is a great difference in the temperature between the days and nights, especially in the summer, when the thermometer varies from 30 to 50 degrees in the course of a few hours. In the whole of this section subsistence is difficult, and the Indians sometimes die of hunger.

The country westward of the Blue Mountains consists for the most part of a light sandy loam; in the valleys a rich alluvion, and barren on the hills. It is well adapted for cattle and horses, as grass, either green or dry, may be always found. Wood is also scarce in this section, except at some distance north of the Columbia river. In the coast district westward of the Cascade range, the soil and climate are well suited for American emigrants. The valley of the Willamette is the finest part of Oregon, and is said to improve on going south towards California. Its wheat is superior, and all the other grains raised in the United States grow well, except corn, the growth of which is somewhat uncertain. Potatoes and all kinds of culinary vegetables flourish. It is also well wooded. Pine, fir, oak of different kinds, ash, maple, poplar, &c., are abundant.

One of the most remarkable trees of this region is a species of pine, the most noble of its genus, and probably the finest specimen of American vegetation. It reaches the amazing height of from 250 to 300 feet, with a trunk 25 to 50 feet in circumference. Its cones are from 12 to 18 inches long, and 10 inches in circumfer-

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ence in the thickest part. This gigantic timber renders the land on which it grows difficult to clear.

The climate here is mild throughout the year, neither presenting the severe cold of winter nor heat of summer. The mean temperature of the Willamette valley is about 54° of Fahrenheit. The winter lasts from December until February. The rains begin to fall in November and continue till March. Snow also falls, but seldom lies longer than a few days. The nights are cool, and affect Indian-corn so far that it will not ripen. Fruit trees blossom early in April at Vancouver and Nisqually, at which latter place peas were a foot high early in May, strawberries were in full blossom, and salad had gone to seed.

In Oregon, as well as in all the other regions over which the Hudson's Bay Company extend their operations, wild animals are becoming scarce. The buffalo was once found on the upper waters of the Columbia, but it is now extinct in that quarter. The sea otter, so valuable for its fur, was found not long since on the Columbia river, but now it is said that none are to be seen.



Black Bear.

Bears of three different varieties are found in Oregon, viz: the grizzly, brown and black. The first is a most formidable animal; its strength and ferocity are such that the hunters use the utmost precaution in attacking it. When adult it is reported to attain sometimes a weight of

800 pounds, and its strength is in proportion. The cubs of the grizzly bear can climb trees, but when full-grown cannot do so. The hunter may thus escape, but the infuriated animal will sometimes keep watch below and confine its enemy for many hours. The black and

brown bear are not so ferocious; they are nearly of the same size, but are only about half the weight of the grizzly bear; they are nearly similar in habits; the former lives more upon vegetable food, and is much esteemed by the hunters for its pure, black, well-coated skin.



Elk.

The elk is sometimes met in Oregon, but is not so plentiful as on the east side of the Rocky Mountains. Deer of three different species abound, the red, the black-tailed, and the common American kind. The deer west of the Rocky Mountains are more lean, and the flesh is less inviting, than those on the other side. The prong-horned antelope is peculiar to Oregon, and is found on the plains of the Columbia. It frequents open prairies and low hills interspersed with clumps of wood; but it is not met with in any of the thickly wooded districts. The horns from which the animal derives its name are singular. They have an anterior branch and a prolonged posterior point turned down into a hook. These animals are exceedingly swift, and live in small families.

The Big Horn or Rocky Mountain sheep and Rocky Mountain goat, are animals peculiar to the western continent. They are found chiefly among the lofty mountains, from which they derive their name, and se-

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lect the most rugged and precipitous spots where grass can be had. The habitat of these animals among the Rocky Mountains is believed to range from latitude 40° northward for nearly 1800 miles, and reaching from California nearly to the Arctic Ocean. The flesh of both these animals is highly prized by the hunters as food. The Big Horn is also found in the Sierra Nevada of California and in the Cascade range of Oregon. Some of the other animals found in Oregon are the panther, the tiger-cat and the lynx. The panther is but rarely seen west of the Rocky Mountains. It is equally ferocious and similar in its habits with the same species found in other parts of America. There are also wolves of five and foxes of three different kinds, besides the beaver, the raccoon, martin, marmot, &c.



White Traders and Indians bartering with each other.

The Oregon Indians are said to be less warlike and savage than those on the eastern side of the Rocky Mountains. They are disposed generally to cultivate friendly relations with the American settlers, and are not averse to the habits and pursuits of a civilized people. The tribes found along the coast are the Clalams, Chickalees, Kilamukes, Chinooks, Cowlitzes, Umpquas,

and some others. Except a few individuals living in the vicinity of the American settlements and the British posts, who have begun to cultivate the ground to a small extent and to raise cattle, those tribes derive their subsistence chiefly from hunting and fishing; the latter they practise with some dexterity; their boats are formed out of a single tree, and are from 12 to 30 feet in length. Their wealth is estimated by the number of their wives, slaves and canoes. The skins and furs which they collect are exchanged with the traders for guns, copper kettles, knives, tobacco, and other articles, besides blue and white beads.

These tribes, however rude, studiously seek to embellish their persons, but in a most fantastic and preposterous manner, by keeping the forehead compressed in infancy with boards and bandages, which causes a straight line to run from the crown of the head to the top of the nose. With this form, and with a thick coating of grease, a young female becomes one of the most hideous objects in existence. Yet when adorned with bear's claws, copper bracelets, and white and blue beads, she is regarded as an object of especial attraction.

East of the Cascade range are the Wallawallas, Nez-perces, Flatheads, Cayuses, Kootanies, &c. These all resemble each other closely in language, customs and character, and are but remotely connected with the lower tribes. Their chief employment is taking salmon and hunting. The latter is, however, a limited resource, buffalo being no longer found on the plains of the Columbia. They have horses in abundance, and are good riders, both men and women. The name of Flatheads has been given to all the upper tribes, but the custom from which it is derived is practised far more extensively among those on the coast. Immediately after birth a bandage is fixed to the head of the infant, where it is kept about a year, and has the effect to flatten the head permanently. This practice is universal among the lower tribes, but above the falls is restricted to the females, and even with the latter is now much less common than formerly.

The great southern plain is inhabited by the Shoshonees or Snakes, Boonacks, &c., who are entirely different from the other tribes west of the Rocky Mountains, and appear to have emigrated from the valley of the Mississippi. The Shoshonees, when destitute of salmon or other fish, subsist on the various roots which they obtain by digging, and are hence called Diggers. The Indians, both of Upper and Lower Oregon, have greatly decreased in numbers since Lewis and Clarke's time, and some tribes have become entirely extinct. In the year 1829, whole villages were depopulated by the fever and ague, which appears to have been much more fatal than among the whites, and was rendered still more so by the unskilful manner in which the Indians treated the disease.



Missionary preaching to the Indians.

Among the Indians of this region missionaries of various Christian sects have long been labouring with assiduity, though it is believed as yet with but doubtful success. The Roman Catholics have made the greatest number of converts, if the reception of baptism be assumed as the test of conversion, whole tribes submitting at once on the first summons to the rite. The Methodists

and Presbyterians employ themselves chiefly in imparting a knowledge of the simplest and most useful arts, and have thus induced some of the natives to engage in agricultural pursuits. The last mentioned missionaries also endeavour to convey religious instruction to them through the medium of their own languages, into which books have been translated and printed in the country.

The civilized inhabitants of Oregon consist of citizens of the United States and the servants of the Hudson's Bay Company. The latter body enjoys by special grant from the British government the use of all the territories claimed by Great Britain west of the Rocky Mountains, as well as the protection of British laws in virtue of an act of Parliament; whilst the citizens of the United States, though now outnumbering the others in the proportion of eight or ten to one, remain independent of all extended authority and jurisdiction whatever. They are not subject to British laws, and are under no control, except the temporary regulations into which they have entered for the sake of local order.

The inhabitants of the territory, a country twice the extent of France, do not probably exceed 50,000 in number, of which 40,000 may be Indians, 8,000 or 10,000 Americans, and 1,000 or 1,200 servants of the Hudson's Bay Company. The American is the only part of the population that is gaining ground, every succeeding year adding to its numbers. Any increase of the Company's people is not likely to take place, as their business is about stationary, and has been so for some years past. The Indians, as in all other parts of America, are annually becoming smaller and smaller in number. The American citizens in Oregon some time since organized a provisional government and legislature, established a court, appointed judges and magistrates, and have passed various salutary enactments. Among the latter is one prohibiting the manufacturing, importing or selling spirituous liquors of any kind, and providing for the seizure and destruction of distillery apparatus, &c. By another act it is provided that negro slavery shall not

be permitted to exist in Oregon, and that the owners of slaves who may bring them into the country shall be allowed two years to remove them, and in default the slaves to be free. The act also prohibits free negroes or mulattoes from settling or remaining in the country, and requires them to leave it in two years.

The principal American settlement is Oregon City. It is on the Willamette or Multnomah river, at the head of navigation; and at the foot of the falls, one of the finest water-powers in the world. It contains from 200 to 300 inhabitants, several stores, machine shops, saw and grist-mills, schools, &c. It is situated about 20 miles south of Fort Vancouver, 30 miles from the Columbia river by the Willamette, and over 100 from Astoria, near the mouth of the Columbia. From the nearest part of the coast it is distant in a direct line about 65 miles. The American emigrants are nearly all settled in the vicinity, and in the valley of the Willamette.

The establishments of the Hudson's Bay Company are called forts, but they are more properly trading-houses, and are all fortified sufficiently to repel a sudden attack. With the exception of Fort Vancouver they are mostly small establishments, containing sometimes only half a dozen individuals. They are the depositaries of the goods used in the Indian trade, and of the furs and peltries obtained in barter from the natives. Vancouver, the largest of these forts, is on the north bank of the Columbia river, 120 miles from its mouth; it is a square picketed enclosure, containing the residences of the factors, clerks, &c., of the establishment, besides various stores and work-shops. Near the fort are the hospital and the dwellings of the people attached to it. In the vicinity are an orchard, garden, and a farm of 600 acres. Two miles lower down the river are the dairy and piggeries, with numerous herds of cattle and hogs. Three miles above the fort are the water-mills for grinding grain and sawing lumber. The people attached to the establishment number about 700; one-half are In-

dians; the remainder consists of British, Canadians, and half-breeds. From Vancouver a direct trade is carried on with Great Britain and also with the Sandwich Islands, which employs several vessels. A small steam-boat plies on the Columbia river and along the coast between the different trading posts. The exports to Britain are furs and peltries, and to the Sandwich Islands wheat, lumber, salmon, &c.

Nearly all the Hudson's Bay Company's establishments are on the Columbia and Frazer's Rivers and their tributaries; three are on the sea coast, and one is on the Umpqua, a few miles above its mouth. Fort George, near the mouth of the Columbia, stands on the site of Astoria, but it is now a place of no moment or account.

The coast of Oregon was first explored by the Spaniards, who, however, did not penetrate into the interior. In 1792, captain Gray of Boston discovered and entered the Columbia, and named it after his ship. He was the first who established the fact of the existence of this great river; and this gives to the United States the title to the regions drained by its waters, from right of discovery. In 1803-4-5, Messrs. Lewis and Clarke were sent out by the United States' government for the purpose of exploring this country. They navigated the Missouri river to its source, and, crossing the Rocky Mountains, descended the Columbia to the Pacific Ocean. They spent the winter on its shores. In the following spring, they returned by the same river to the mountains, and thence, down the Missouri, home. This exploration of the chief river, the first ever made, constitutes another ground of claim of the American people to Oregon. They have also strong claims by the Louisiana treaty of 1803 with France, and by the treaty of 1819, by which Spain relinquished all her rights on the Pacific north of lat. 42°, and which is considered to have extended as far north as lat. 60°. In the year 1824, by a convention with Russia, it was agreed that the United States should make no establishments on the coasts

north of lat. $54^{\circ} 40'$, and that the Russians should make none south of the same line. This constitutes the right by which the American government claims that particular boundary.

To the territory of Oregon, therefore, the United States have acquired a very strong title by the discovery of the principal river, and by interior exploration, as well as by treaties with foreign powers. It is, however, contested by Great Britain, who claims, not that the title is in her, but that the region is unappropriated and open to the first comer. She also contends that Mr. Mackenzie, a British subject in 1793, was the first white man who explored any portion of Oregon by land; that Heceta, a Spanish navigator, and not captain Gray, discovered the Columbia river; that the exploration and surveys of Cook and Vancouver give a better title to those parts of the North West Coast in question than the claim founded on Gray's discovery of the Columbia; that Spain, in 1790, relinquished part of her rights on the N. W. coast to her; that Louisiana, as claimed by France, extended no further westward than the Rocky Mountains; and that the arrangement with Russia in 1824 was neutralized by a convention in 1825, in which the same parallel of latitude ($54^{\circ} 40'$) was agreed on as the boundary of the Russian and British possessions in that quarter.

By a convention concluded in 1818, to last twelve years, it was agreed between the United States and Great Britain, that neither government should take possession of it, or occupy it, to the exclusion of the other, during the period of the convention, which either party might renounce upon giving twelve months' notice. This convention was renewed indefinitely in 1827, or to cease at the option of the contracting parties.

In April, 1846, a joint resolution passed the Congress of the United States in the words following, viz: Resolved, that the President of the United States be, and he is hereby, authorized at his discretion to give to the British government the notice required by its second

article for the abrogation of the said convention of the 6th of August, 1827.

Although the United States have this strong claim to the whole region of Oregon, from N. lat. 42° to $54^{\circ} 40'$, yet the government has several times proposed, from motives of accommodation, to adopt the forty-ninth parallel of latitude as the dividing line, with the free navigation of the Columbia river to the people of both nations, with the exception that in the last proposition (that was made by President Polk), the use of the Columbia river south of the parallel of 49° to British subjects, is rescinded, and in lieu thereof, it is agreed that Great Britain shall have any port or ports on the coast of Quadra and Vancouver Island, south of lat. 49° , she may choose. By this arrangement, the United States would relinquish a territory of about 160,000 square miles, being nearly equal in extent to the whole of the New England and Middle States united. The British have, however, constantly refused to assent to any arrangement which should deprive them of the coast and territories north of the Columbia river. They propose in return the adoption of the 49th parallel of latitude westward from the Rocky Mountains, to the nearest waters of the Columbia (M'Gillivray's river): thence down stream to the ocean, the navigation to be free to the people of both nations. In addition, they offer to cede a small district, nearly equal in extent to the State of Connecticut, bounded by the Pacific, the straits of San Juan de Fuca, Hood's canal and Bulfinch's or Gray's harbour, having Cape Flattery for its north-westernmost point. This scheme would divide Oregon into two very nearly equal districts; each power would receive about 210,000 square miles of territory.

Several attempts were made, by different individuals from the United States, to settle in this territory. In 1808, the Missouri Fur Company established a trading-house on Lewis's river, the first ever formed on any of the waters of the Columbia. In 1810, the Pacific Fur Company, under John J. Astor, of New York, was form-

ed; and in 1811, Astoria was established at the mouth of Columbia river. In consequence of the exposure of this post, by the last war with Great Britain, it was sold to the Hudson Bay Company; but was restored to its original proprietors, by order of the British government, at the close of the war, agreeably to the first articles of the treaty of Ghent.

The first emigration from the settled portions of the United States for the purpose of occupying any part of Oregon territory was made in the year 1832. For some years afterwards the number of emigrants was limited; but a better acquaintance with the route and the proper mode of travelling has greatly increased the desire to settle on the shores of the Pacific. In 1843, not less than 1000 individuals emigrated to Oregon. In the following year the number was still greater; and in 1845, there passed Fort Laramie for the Willamette 850 men, 475 women, and 1000 children, driving with them about 7000 head of cattle, 400 horses and mules, and 460 wagons.

All the travelling which has yet taken place between Oregon, California and the United States, has been by land. None of the rivers which flow from the Rocky Mountains eastward across the prairies present any favourable facilities for navigation; and the same may be said of the Columbia river and its branches, except on the lower part of its course from Wallawalla downwards. Emigrants with families generally leave Western Missouri early in April. They should be provided with strong well-made light wagons, with young serviceable oxen, and ought to unite in companies of from 20 to 50 wagons, well armed, and keeping a strict watch after dark so as not to be surprised by the Indians. On encamping at night it is usual to form either a circle or square with the wagons by bringing them close together, and running the tongue of each wagon between the hind wheel and bed of the one before, alternately chaining them together, and thus forming a secure breastwork. Wood for fires, and drinkable water, are

not to be procured in some places on the Oregon route. It is therefore necessary to carry a supply of the latter in kegs kept for the purpose on those parts of the road known to be deficient in that indispensable article. This seldom occurs for a distance of more than 20 miles at a time.

Where fire-wood cannot be obtained, buffalo dung affords a substitute, and can generally be met with. Hunting the buffalo or other game should not be depended on to any extent for a supply of food. This would retard the progress of the journey materially, and cannot be relied on with certainty. Emigrants should take a good supply of flour and bacon, with tea, coffee, sugar, salt, and such other necessities as they have convenient carriage for, besides clothing, boots, shoes, ammunition, &c., sufficient to last them through the journey. Those who have the means will find it advantageous to take such articles for barter with the Indians as they are known to prefer; cotton handkerchiefs, cheap red ribbons, moccasin awls, small beads of different colours, &c., will answer the purpose.

The town of Independence in the State of Missouri, near the mouth of Kansas river, is the usual starting point for a journey to Oregon and California, as well as to Santa Fé in New Mexico. The route to Oregon extends about 40 miles from Independence along the Santa Fé trace, thence in a north-west direction to the Kansas river. On crossing that stream, nearly the same direction is pursued until reaching the banks of the Platte or Nebraska; thence to the Forks, and along the south Fork of that river to the crossing-place, it is nearly west; then north-west to the North Fork, up the latter to Fort Laramie, west by north. This fort is a fur-trading post, at the junction of the North Fork of Platte and Laramie creek, and near the entrance of the Black Hills. It is in the Sioux country, about 700 miles from Independence, and double that distance from Oregon City.

From Fort Laramie the Oregon route is north-west to Rock Independence, on the Sweetwater branch of North

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Platte; then due-west to the South Pass of the Rocky Mountains. This point is 1000 miles from Independence, and rather more than half-way to the Columbia river at Wallawalla. From the Kansas river and along the Platte to the crossings of the South Fork, the road is mostly through the Pawnee country; thence to the mountains the Sioux will be met with; buffalo, deer, &c., in many parts plentiful, and the Indians will be seen from time to time in pursuit of game.



Indians Hunting Buffalo.

From the Missouri river to the vicinity of Fort Laramie the soil affords tolerable grazing for cattle and horses; but from the latter point to the South Pass, a distance of nearly 300 miles, the country is a desert, almost without grass, and producing little else than the wild sage and a species of the cactus or prickly pear.

The streams immediately westward of the South Pass are all tributary to the Colorado or Red River of the west, which discharges its waters into the Gulf of California. Farther west is the Bear River, the chief feeder of the Great Salt Lake. The latter lies embosomed among lofty mountains, about 70 or 80 miles westward of the emigrant route. On leaving the South Pass, the tra-

veller pursues a south-west direction to the Green river, the head branch of the Colorado; then up Ham and Black's Forks to Bridger's Fort, a fur-trading post; thence to Bear river. This stream he follows nearly northwards to the Beer or Soda Springs; and thence to the valley of the Portneuf, down which he makes his way to Fort Hall, a trading-post of the Hudson's Bay Company, at the confluence of the Snake or Lewis river and the Portneuf.

The route to Fort Hall presents comparatively few difficulties, and is traversed every summer by hundreds of wagons. The remainder of the journey is attended with many inconveniences, some arising from the nature of the ground, which may however be lessened or removed by the application of labour at certain points; and others from the want of water and grass for cattle. Travellers with wagons generally follow the Snake or Lewis river from Fort Hall to the crossings about 190 miles lower down, and thence go northward to the upper part of the Boisé or Reed's river, through the valley of which they regain the Snake river; thence pass over the country through the beautiful valley called the Grand Ronde to the confluence of the Wallawalla with the main Columbia, almost 550 miles from Fort Hall. Those on foot or on horseback find more direct lines of communication between those two places.

Below the Wallawalla, the obstacles to the passage of wheel-carriages are at present such as to preclude the use of them almost entirely; and the numerous rapids and whirlpools in the Columbia render the voyage down to the Falls of that river exceedingly dangerous. Near the termination of the Cascades or lower falls is Fort Vancouver, distant about 250 miles from Wallawalla, and 125 from the Pacific. Six miles below Vancouver is the mouth of the Willamette, in the valley of which river the American settlements are mostly situated. Oregon City, the principal settlement, is at the falls of Willamette, and about 18 miles distant from Vancouver, 90 miles from the mouth of the Columbia,

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and 2171 miles from Independence by the travelled route, as may be seen from the following itinerary. The journey will last, according to circumstances, from 130 to 150 days; but small unencumbered parties on horse-back may accomplish it probably in about a month less time.

Oregon City is in latitude $45^{\circ} 20'$, nearly or about the same parallel as the falls of St. Anthony, the City of Montreal, and St. Johns in New Brunswick. Its longitude is about $45^{\circ} 45'$ west of Washington, making a difference of 3 hours and 3 minutes in time; so that when it is 12 o'clock mer. in Washington, it will want 3 minutes to 9 A. M. in Oregon City.

*Emigrant Route to Oregon, with the distances in miles
and the courses pursued.*

From Independence to the crossings of Kansas river,

To Platte River,	S. W. W. & N. W.	102	
Forks of Platte,	N. W.	223	325
Crossings of the South Fork,	W. N. W.	130	455
North Fork,	W.	75	533
Scott's Bluff,	N. W.	20	553
Fort Laramie,	W. N. W.	75	628
Rock Independence,	W. N. W.	82	710
South Pass,	N. W. W. & S. W.	189	899
Green River,	W.	102	1000
Bridger's Fort,	S. W.	70	1070
Bear River,	S. & S. W.	59	1129
Beer or Soda Springs,	N. W.	68	1197
Fort Hall,	N. N. W.	92	1289
Fishing or Salmon Falls,	N. W.	61	1350
Crossings of Lewis River,	S. W. & W.	150	1500
Do. Bosiee do.	N. W.	35	1535
Fort Bosiee,	N. W.	70	1605
Malheur River,	W. N. W.	45	1650
Burnt do.	N. N. W.	22	1672
Grande Ronde or Great Circle,	N.	52	1724
Dr. Whitman's,	N. N. W.	64	1788
Fort Nezperce or Wallawalla,	N. W.	80	1868
Dalles of the Columbia,	W. N. W.	25	1893
Cascades,	W. S. W.	158	2051
Fort Vancouver,	N. W. & W.	86	2087
Oregon City,	W. N. W.	54	2141
	S.	30	2171

UPPER OR NEW CALIFORNIA.

UPPER or New California comprehends that part of North America which lies west of the Rocky Mountain chain (called here the Anahuac Mountains), and extending from north to south from latitude 42° to latitude 32° north. Within these limits it includes the territory discovered by Sir Francis Drake, almost three centuries ago, and called by him New Albion. On the north it is bounded by Oregon, south by Old California and Sonora, west by the Pacific Ocean, and east partly by the United States, and partly by the territory of New Mexico. In dimensions it is almost equal to Oregon, being in extent from north to south about 700, and from east to west from 600 to 800 miles, and having an area of about 400,000 square miles.

Upper, or in Spanish phrase, Alta California, has long formed the north-western province of Mexico; but at length, after several domestic disturbances, the people have declared themselves independent of that power, and will, most probably, be for ever separated from it. The natives dislike the Mexicans; and that circumstance has given rise to sunery revolutions in their government. They must now take measures to become consolidated into an independent state, or be the subjects of some foreign power. Immigration will assist the former, while the attractions of its magnificent harbour of San Francisco may, in a very few years, effect the latter.

Our knowledge of the geography of this part of the Western Continent is still limited, and a large portion of it is unknown. The late expedition of Captain Fremont, U. S. Top. En., has given a more exact view of the interior than has yet been presented. He has determined the position and figure of its noted Salt Lake,

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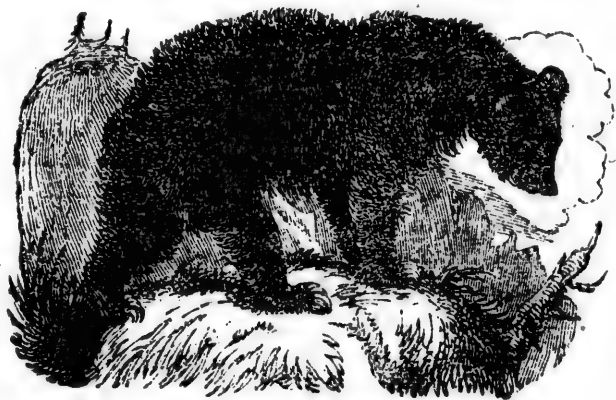
indicated the probable boundary and extent of its great interior desert, explored its chief mountains, and exhibited the character and condition of some of its interior tribes with more apparent truthfulness than any other traveller. His tour, which occupied 17 months of time, viz., from the month of May, 1843, until August, 1844, and extended upwards of 6400 miles, more than a third of which was in California, is one of the most remarkable and interesting that has yet been performed in America.

A considerable portion of California is reported to be a desert, and unsuitable for cultivation; but the district which extends along the shores of the Pacific, as far inland as the Sierra Nevada, is known to be well calculated for settlement, and will doubtless, at no distant period, contain a large population. The first ridge of hills met with, on passing inland from the sea, is the Coast Range, a continuation of the central chain of Lower California; further inland, is the Sierra Nevada, or Snowy Range, which forms the eastern boundary of the finer portion of the territory, and separates the maritime district from the interior desert.

The Sierra Nevada and the Coast Range run nearly in the direction of the sea-shore; the first at a distance from the Pacific, varying from 100 to 200 miles, and the other at from 40 to 60 miles. The valley interposed between them is the finest part of California; it is not less than 500 miles in length, and from 60 to 140 wide. The Sierra Nevada, or Snowy Range of California, is reported by Captain Fremont to be of greater height than the Rocky Mountains, and is all the time covered with snow. The pass by which that intrepid officer crossed the Sierra was 9338 feet above the sea, and the mountains on either hand rose several thousand feet higher. The Coast Range is of less elevation than the Sierra Nevada; some of its peaks are, however, covered with snow. Mount San Benardin and Mount Shaste are the highest.

The Sierra Nevada has been hitherto very imperfectly

represented on maps. For its true position the world is indebted to Captain Fremont, who travelled along its base for 1000 miles, during the winter of 1843-44, first for half that distance on the eastern, and the remainder on the western side. The Indians on the former side of the Sierra are adepts in using snow-shoes, on which they pursue their excursions along the snowy and frozen sides of the mountains. The Sierra Nevada is remarkable for a new species of pine, which has been called the nut-pine; it produces an oily and pleasant-tasted nut, which forms an important part of the winter store of the almost famished inhabitants of these regions. The Big-Horn, or mountain sheep, and the Grizzly Bear, both inhabit the Sierra, and the latter is probably the



Grizzly Bear.

northernmost range of that animal. In its descent to the level country, the grizzly bear is sometimes met with in the vicinity of the towns on the coast, terrifying the inhabitants, and occasionally carrying off a sheep, a calf, or an ox.

The chief mountains of Upper California, on the eastern frontier, are the Sierra Anahuac, the Sierra los Mimbres, and the Sierra Madre. These all form a continuous chain, and are a part of the great Rocky Mountain range. They separate the waters of the Colorado from those of the Rio Grande del Norte. The

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Bear River and Wahsatch Mountains were recently explored by Captain Fremont; they are both of considerable elevation, and form the eastern rim of the Great Interior Basin.

The chief lake of Upper California is the Great Salt Lake, which lies in the northern extremity of the territory, and about 70 miles south of Lewis River. It is of an irregular figure, not less than 90 miles long, and from 30 to 40 wide; the surface is 4000 feet above that of the ocean; it has no visible outlet, and its waters are much saltier than those of the sea. This lake was explored by Captain Fremont, in the year 1843, when its figure and position were determined with much more accuracy than before. It is doubtless the Lake Timpanogos of the Spanish maps, and has been also known as Lake Bonneville, and Lake Youta. The country in the vicinity of its eastern border is reported as being, in many parts, favourable for settlement, and the lake will doubtless be, at some future period, of vast importance, on account of the boundless quantity of salt that may be made from it. Utah, a much smaller, but fresh-water lake, flows into the Great Salt Lake from the south. Mountain, Pyramid, and Mud Lakes, were recently discovered by Captain Fremont, and lie among the lofty ridges of the Sierra Nevada: they contain a species of large and fine flavoured salmon-trout. From the surface of Pyramid Lake a singular shaped rock, nearly as regular in form as the famed pyramids of Egypt, rises to the height of 600 feet: it is visible many miles distant, and from it the lake received its name. The two Tule, or Bulrush Lakes, lie in the valley between the Sierra Nevada and the Coast Range Mountains, and are formed by the waters which flow in them. The lower and largest lake is probably about 80 miles in length, and from 12 to 15 in width. The upper lake is much smaller. During the spring months, when these lakes are filled to overflowing, their waters find a passage into the River San Joaquin, but at other times the connection ceases.

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Nearly the whole of the central part of this region extending from 400 to 500 miles from north to south, and about the same from east to west, is unexplored. It has been called by Captain Fremont, the "Great Interior Basin of California." On the west it is enclosed by the Sierra Nevada, and on the east by the Bear River and Wahsatch Mountains. It is generally represented as a sandy desert, but it is known to contain, in some quarters, various rivers and lakes, none of whose waters reach the ocean. The mountains by which the whole is surrounded prevent their egress, and the surplus is no doubt absorbed by evaporation, or lost in the sands of the more arid districts. The population consists of a few wandering savages, who live chiefly on insects and seeds, and on the roots which they dig out of the earth; hence their name of "Diggers." The rabbit is the largest animal known here; it supplies a little flesh, and its skin furnishes the scanty raiment of the almost naked inhabitants. The wild sage is the only wood; it grows of large size, being often a foot in diameter, and from six to eight feet high. It serves for fuel, for shelter to the rabbits, and for some sort of covering for the feet and legs of the miserable inhabitants in cold weather. It is also the material of which they construct their diminutive wigwams.*

The tract along the southern edge of this desert region travelled by the late exploring party, was found frequently marked by the skeletons of horses that had perished for want of water; and for several hundred miles the surface of the country seemed more like an Arabian desert than a portion of North America.

Wild animals are, in some parts of Upper California,

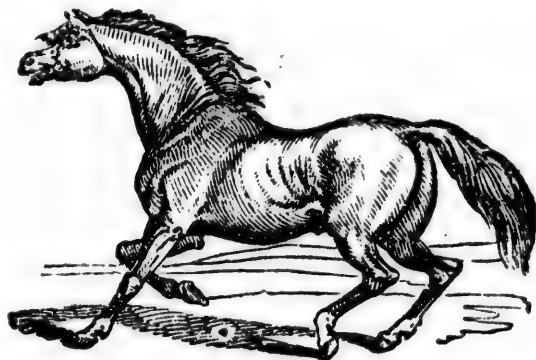
* By information received from Captain Fremont, since he entered California on his second tour of exploration, 1845-46, it appears that he has crossed the Great Interior Basin, or Desert, and found it to be much less sterile and unforbidding in character than he was at first led to believe. He has also discovered a practicable direct pass through the mountain to California, that will greatly shorten the distance, and lessen the fatigues of the emigrants to that country; but the particulars are not yet known.

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very numerous. The buffalo, panther, or American tiger, deer, and several other species of quadrupeds, are common. The beaver abound in many of the streams, particularly on the upper tributaries of the Colorado River; but they are much sought after for their skins, and are less numerous than formerly. The rabbit is reported as the only animal to be found in the Great Basin.



Wild Horse.

Captain Fremont encountered, in his late journey through the valley of the San Joaquin, large droves of elk and wild horses, also wolves and antelopes. He ascertained, also, that the Big Horn, or Mountain Sheep, and the Grizzly Bear, are met with in the Sierra Nevada, as well as among the Rocky Mountains.

The birds of California are generally similar to those of the United States. One of the most remarkable of its land birds, is the great Californian Vulture. It builds its nest in the loftiest pine-trees among the mountains. It is from 4

to 4½ feet long, and its quills are so large as to be used



Californian Vulture.

by the hunters as tubes for tobacco-pipes. The food of this species is carrion, or dead fish, for in no instances will they attack any living animal, unless it be wounded or unable to walk. In searching for prey, they soar to a great height, and on discovering a wounded deer, or other animal, they follow its track until it sinks. Although only one bird may be first in possession, it is soon surrounded by great numbers, who all fall upon the carcass, and devour it to a skeleton within an hour, even though it be a horse or a stag.

The wheat of California is of excellent quality; and, except in years when drought prevails, the product is very abundant. Indian corn yields well, also potatoes, beans, peas, &c. The soil is well adapted for grapes; from 3000 to 4000 gallons of wine are made, and about the same amount of brandy; this, however, is quite insufficient for the supply of the country, and large amounts of foreign wines and liquors are imported.

The wealth of this part of the continent consists of live stock. Besides large herds of cattle; sheep, horses, mules, goats, and swine abound. The mutton is of fine flavour, but the wool is inferior, as no attention is paid to that kind of stock. The chief articles of export are hides and tallow: about 150,000 of the former, and 200,000 arrobas of the latter are exported annually. About 2000 beaver, 3000 elk and deer, and 400 or 500 sea-otter skins, the latter worth 30 dollars a-piece, are also exported; besides which, about 12,000 bushels of wheat are shipped annually to the Russian settlements on the Northwest Coast.

At the missions, coarse blankets and wearing apparel for the Indians are manufactured, besides a small amount of soap and leather. There are in the country only two or three water-mills for grinding wheat, which are owned by Americans.

The inhabitants of California consist of whites, half-breeds, and Indians, and are of very limited amount for the extent of country they occupy. Estimates of their number are usually made in reference to those occupy-

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ing the settlements along the coast, and the country lying between the Pacific and the Sierra Nevada. The remainder of the territory is so vaguely known that no estimate, even of the probable number, could be relied on. Within the limits above specified, the Aborigines are estimated at 12,000, one half being converted Indians; the remainder reside mostly on the Sacramento River, and on the coast. The whites amount to about 8000, and the half-breeds to 2000, making the whole population about 22,000 souls.

The white population consists of Californians and Americans; the former are similar to the inhabitants of the other parts of Mexico, who are of Spanish origin. They are much addicted to gambling; are proud and indolent, and look upon all manual labour as degrading. Games of cards and dice are equally in favour with men and women. Cock-fighting, bull and bear-baiting, and dancing, are the chief amusements. The women seldom receive any kind of education, and are consequently very ignorant, and are the slaves of their husbands. They dress expensively where they have the means; are fond of gaudy colours, and wear a profusion of jewelry. The females of the better class are often very handsome; engaging and amiable in their manners, and have, in some instances, become the wives of Americans and other foreigners.

The people of California have horses in abundance, and are all fearless and expert riders; and in this respect the women are almost equal with the men. The latter use the lasso with great skill; and with it they catch wild cattle and horses very dexterously.

The number of American citizens in Upper California is already considerable, and is daily increasing, particularly in the region lying north of the Bay of San Francisco, formerly occupied to some extent by the Russians. Some are engaged in farming, some in trade, others are building ships, houses, mills, &c. Their superior enterprise and industry have already placed nearly all of them in comfortable circumstances, and should they

continue to emigrate to any extent, will, in a short time, materially improve the condition of the country. The Americans seem to be on very good terms with the Californians, and have hitherto given themselves but little concern about the Mexican government; of the unfriendly feeling of which towards them, they have been often reminded by the decrees passed from time to time for their expulsion. These decrees the different governors of the territory have contented themselves with merely proclaiming, as it would be sheer folly to attempt enforcing them, whilst the Californians are obliged to depend almost wholly on the Americans to suppress the incursions of the predatory Indians.

The aborigines of Upper California are for the most part indolent and pusillanimous, and destitute of the boldness and energy displayed by many of their race in other quarters. Excepting those that have been converted in the missions, the women go nearly and the men entirely naked. They are filthy in their habits live in small miserable wigwams built of rushes, of which they also construct their rafts, and what clothing they use. In their primitive state they have no agriculture, but subsist on wild herbs, seeds, which the women collect and grind into a meal, also on fish, the shell-fish on the shores, the products of the chase, and whales' flesh and blubber, whenever that animal is cast on the coast, an event which occasions great rejoicings.

The Pah Utah Indians, who inhabit the interior along the south edge of the Great Desert, live mostly by plunder and robbery; their arms are long bows and arrows; the latter are pointed with a very hard stone, a species of opal, and are almost as effective as a rifle or musket-ball. They often make incursions into the coast-settlements and commit grievous depredations; the horses and mules which they capture are driven to their retreats in the mountains, and are immediately slaughtered for food. In traversing their country, Captain Fremont and his followers were obliged to use the utmost vigilance to prevent a surprise, and one of his best men was killed

by them. These Indians constantly dogged the party, watching for an opportunity to make an attack, and a stray horse or mule was taken off in a moment.

The Utah Indians are found farther east, partly in California, and partly in New Mexico; they have frequent intercourse with the people of the latter country, and are less savage in their habits. They have horses in abundance, are skilful riders, and have often good rifles. These Indians are robbers of a higher order than those of the desert. They conduct their depredations with form, and under the colour of trade, and as a toll for passing through their country. Instead of attacking and killing, they affect to purchase, taking the horses, &c., they like, and giving something nominal in return.

In the southern part of the territory, and on both sides of the Colorado River, there are various tribes, the Mohaves, Apaches, Moquis, or Monquis, Jumas, &c., of which we know little except the names. Captain Fremont met with a few individuals of the Mohave or Amachuba tribe; they were armed with bows of unusual length, and had large gourds, strengthened with meshes of cord, in which they carried water. He learned that the tribe raise melons of various kinds, and that individuals sometimes cross the intervening desert to trade with the Sierra Indians, bringing blankets and other articles that are made by the Moquis and some of the neighbouring tribes.

Under the Mexican rule, *Alta*, or *Nueva California*, occupied the space of the old Spanish Intendencia of the same name. It laid on the Pacific Ocean, bounded by Oregon on the north, the 42° north latitude dividing the two territories; on the south by *Vieja California*; on the east by the Rocky Mountains, which divide it from New Mexico, Sonora, etc., and on the west by the Pacific. The strip of country on the Pacific is about 700 miles in length, and 125 in breadth, and is the only fertile portion of the country. Discovered by one of the companions of Cortez, California yet remained for a long time uninhabited, except by the Indian aborigines.

This might have been expected, from the immense wealth of Mexico and of Peru, which was more easily to be seized by force, than the mineral wealth of California to be acquired by patience and labour.

No country in the world exhibits so great a diversity of soil and climate as California, the loveliest and best portions of which do not lie upon the sea-coast, which, from the southern boundary to Cape Mendocino, in latitude 40° , is occupied by a high, broken ridge, reaching twenty miles into the interior. Between this range and a loftier one, known as the Sierra, is the valley of San Juan. Beyond this, eastward, is another valley, through which runs the Sacramento, reaching as far as Monte Bernadino, which, in another portion of the territory, is known as the Buena Ventura. Farther back, is the continuation of the Cascade Range of Oregon. Beyond these are vast, sandy plains, where none but an Indian can exist.

In all the world there is no better harbour than San Francisco, on the bay of the same name, a great land-locked sound, about twenty miles south of 38° north. This sound is formed by the debouchment of the greatest rivers of California, the Sacramento and San Joachin, one flowing south from the vicinity of Mount Shaste, in latitude 41° , and the other from Lake Chintache, about $36^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, of which it is the outlet. The valleys of these rivers are the great gardens of California, producing the fruits of both tropical and temperate climates. In the southern portion of this valley is collected a dense population of Indians, the descendants of the old inhabitants of the missions. These rivers, about sixty miles from the sea, unite, and then wind through a vast swamp of heavy timber, forming a Dædalian mystery of channels, in which, it is said, more than one traveller has lost his way for ever. Lower down, the various channels unite in one broad bay, on the waters of which is the town of San Francisco. There is a peculiarity in the ebb and flow of the tide of this bay, which is worthy of consideration. It suffices by its

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own force to bring a vessel in front of the anchorage, and to carry it out, without aid or assistance from either sails or oars. No better harbour is known in the world, and at some day, it must become the great depot of the Pacific coast, and one of the great cities of the nation. The name of San Francisco is old, having been recently driven out by Yerba Buena. This name means *good grass*, and is evidently the translation of some old Indian appellation; and as such was this great harbour known, both by the people with whom Lieut.-Col. Fremont and Major Emory met. This is also the name applied to it by the late General Kearny, in his official letters and communications. In spite of many flattering accounts, the site of this town is not prepossessing, the houses being built on the sea-shore, between the water and a ridge of low sand hills. There is little variation in the range of the thermometer, throughout the year, and the atmosphere, though regularly dry, is not chilly. Of all the places on the Pacific, *Yerba Buena*, or San Francisco, is probably the most healthy, never having been visited by that scourge of all of the Spanish-American ports, the vomito, and having no disease incident to its location but a remittent fever of very mild type. This town was laid out in 1839, by a person named Viogt, and, in spite of all the troubles, rapidly increased in size and importance. When Mr. Bryant wrote his valuable book, "What I saw in California," it numbered some hundred inhabitants. Since the immense immigration thither, in consequence of the discovery of gold, this number has been greatly increased, so that this beautiful port may undoubtedly be esteemed a city.

There are other points which also present many advantages as sites for a city. Among these is Sausilita, distant from Yerba Buena about two Spanish *leguas*, or seven miles. It is on the opposite side of the bay, and has long been the watering-place of the American whalemén. In the course of time, as the country becomes settled, and its facilities for commerce are un-

folded, these two ports will be substantially united into one, as are the many cities on the bay of New York.

Just one degree south of the bay of San Francisco is the bay of Monterey, formed by the debouchment of the Buena Ventura. On this bay is the city of Monterey, the old capital and seat of the government during the Mexican rule. There also were the head-quarters and the seat of the government, anterior to the gold excitement. It was a thriving town, of about 1000 inhabitants; but recently has, as accounts state, been almost deserted. The defences of this port were once formidable, but suffered much from decay during the Mexican regime. Since the substitution, however, of the United States' for the old flag, they have again put on much of the pomp and power of war. One hundred miles farther south, is the city of "the Angels," for the possession of which several stern conflicts occurred during the Mexican war. Santa Barbara was once also a place of importance, and was situated on the extremity of the channel of the same name, not far from Monterey. It has now dwindled into insignificance. A glance at the map of California will show a multitude of names, each with the prefix of San or Santa to it. They are most imposing on the map, but, like San Diego and San Pascual, have dwindled away into mere names, for which there is no colour of reality, except a few crumbling ruins of *adobe*, or unburned brick, which were once the seats of the Jesuit missions. Around these are the huts of the Indians, miserable and squalid, looking more like the lairs of beasts than the habitations of men.

Far up in California is a region which possessed, long before the discovery of gold, many attractions to the American settlers, who had crowded thither so rapidly, that the stream itself took its name from them, being called *el rio de los Americanos*, or American River. On this point a very remarkable man established himself. This person was Captain Sutter, a Swiss by birth, and one of the captains of the famous guards of Charles X., who served that unfortunate monarch so gallantly, when he

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was forced to abdicate. A refugee, he came to America, and, after establishing himself temporarily at St. Louis, Mo., or in its vicinity, went to California, where he took up his abode on a magnificent tract of land, granted to him by the Mexican government. This was about 1840, for in 1842 Captain Fremont found him well established. Following the examples of the Jesuits, he sought to avail himself of the labour of the Indians, and had admirable success. All his works had been constructed by Indian hands, and were in good order and condition. Not long afterwards, the Russian Fur Company being about to abandon their factories at Ross and at Bodega, he purchased their stock, transportation, ordnance, etc., and built his fort, a strong work, mounting twelve guns, and capable of containing one thousand men. Around Captain Sutter are many other settlers, principally Americans, all of whom were thriving agriculturists. Since the discovery of gold in their neighbourhood, on the *Rio de los plumas*, and elsewhere, they must have become wealthy, even if they had no other resource than the high prices of their agricultural products, created by the immense emigration. The name of the settlement of Captain Sutter is *Nueva Helvetia*.

At last, however, an immense discovery was made, which was reported to the government of the United States officially, by Mr. Larkin, naval agent of the United States for the port of San Francisco. It seems that in digging a mill-race, on the Feather River, a vast deposit of auriferous sand was discovered, called in the technical language of mining, a *placer*. So rich was this, that at a depth of only eighteen inches from the surface, with no utensils or machinery other than a shovel and a shallow dish, quantities of golden sand, equal in amount to two ounces, and sometimes far more, per diem, were extracted by a single individual. At as early a date as June 1, 1848, Mr. Larkin estimated that \$20,000 worth of gold dust had already been bartered away. At once San Francisco was deserted, and the majority of the population hurried to the mines; and

labour increased so much in value, that an ordinary ship's cook, who at sea had served for twelve dollars per month, refused fifteen dollars a day, and labourers who received five dollars a day, struck for higher wages, and hurried to the mines. Sailors left the merchant service in bodies, and even the stringent discipline of the army could not retain the enlisted men true to their colours. The price of a shovel was fifty dollars. The printers employed in setting up for the press the code of laws prepared by Col. Mason, the commandant and governor, stopped work, with one exception. The mass of the gold was in small grains, but Mr. Larkin reported that he saw masses of ore weighing many ounces.

In a short time the price of the gold began to diminish; and in his second letter, dated June 28, Mr. Larkin reports that gold was offered for merchandise at fourteen dollars per ounce. A rude machine, similar to a child's cradle in appearance, was contrived. In this, earth was thrown to the depth of a couple of inches, and water made to pass over it until the non-metallic particles had disappeared. Six men, working two of these machines, in one day made \$300, and this was considered a fair average. The plank necessary to construct one of these machines was worth \$500, and the carpenter employed to make it demanded \$50 per day. In a short time, at Feather and Copimes Rivers, two thousand persons were collected, the aggregate product of the labour of whom was to be estimated at \$10,000 per day. It must be remembered that these data are derived, not from a gossiping letter, but from the official reports of a public officer, and therefore are to be believed.

The first discoverers of this immense deposit of wealth, were a party of Mormons, who long kept it a secret, except from persons of their own communion, and thereby, in all probability, obtained vast wealth. Operations, it has however been ascertained, were first commenced in May or June, 1848. Vast as are the profits of operations so far, no idea can be formed of that likely to accrue, when a more perfect system shall have been

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adopted. It is most probable that the greater portion of the gold taken from the water is washed again into the stream. Nothing of this kind can happen under a good system of operations, where every grain should be saved. How much is thus lost may be realised from the ascertained fact, that a portion of the earth rejected as valueless, having been by some shrewd person secured in bottles, and sent to the United States mint, was found to yield about five cents per *bottle*. The gold-bearing country was found to be far wider than at first was estimated, extending to the Yerba, Cossamer, and other streams on the eastern side of the Rio de los Americanos. It has been found in dry ravines; and the Rev. Mr. Colton, well known as an author, states that a large party set out to thread the course of the Sacramento, with the expectation of finding, somewhere near Mount Shaste, an exhaustless bed of virgin gold—a delusion only less likely to prove true, than the fancy which led Raleigh and his companions to seek an El Dorado in the country of the Amazon.

There is reason to believe that the Jesuits were aware of the existence of gold in California; but those shrewd and learned observers obtained possession of the country at the time that the evils of the Spanish colonial system were becoming evident, and directed the objects of their cares rather to turn their attention to agricultural and pastoral industry, than to precarious mining operations. It is however most likely that they never were aware of the immense wealth which lay at their door, or cupidity would have triumphed over ideal systems. At present all other industry has been abandoned, so that other mineral resources, which elsewhere would be considered the realisation of dreams of Ophir, are neglected. There are also silver mines, and vast beds of the oxide of mercury, yielding the precious quicksilver by the application of heat alone. In close neighbourhood to the American River are valuable beds of iron ore, yielding, it is said, eighty-five per centum—a valuable discovery, less only in importance than that of gold. The absence of

this humbler mineral has long kept Mexico behind the rest of the world in arts and manufactures.

The Rio de los Americanos, up to the gold placer, is a broad, deep stream, now navigable by batteaux, and capable doubtless of yet greater improvement. It affords many mill sites, and possesses a water power second to none in the world. What the Andes are to South America the Sierra Nevada is to the western portion of our territory, and the last is not less rich in mineral deposits than the first. All the inexhaustible wealth of gold, silver, iron, etc., is taken from a granite mass, not inferior, for building, to any known. The population of San Francisco was all amazed; yet, in spite of the vast amount of minerals extracted from the earth, it did not become rich. The old fable of Midas was revived—all things were turned into gold; and the necessities of life could only be purchased by gold. Bread was increased in price forty fold, and other articles bore a yet higher price in proportion.

At last the highest authority in the country was forced to take notice of the state of things, and wrote to the secretary of war, August 17, 1848. He described the whole country as being emptied of its inhabitants; cattle as being unherded, houses locked up, and mills unoccupied. At Sutter's Fort, however, the scene changed—the whole activity of the country being concentrated at this point. The valuable improvements of Captain Sutter were suspended, he being able to employ only two mechanics, one of them a blacksmith and another a wagon-maker, to whom he paid ten dollars a day. The operation of gold-washing was described by Col. Mason, as in the preceding pages. It consisted simply of throwing the earth in the cradle, which was covered with wicker-work, agitating the rude machine, upon which water was thrown. This left the gold mingled with a fine black sand, which, until recently, has been thrown away; though it now is discovered to be valuable, paying a sum amply reimbursing labour. The letter of Col. Mason thus describes the gold: "It is

in fine gold scales." Speaking of the ore obtained from the works of Mr. Marshall, a little distance from Captain Sutter: "This gold, too, is in scales a little coarser than those of the lower mines. A great deal of coarse gold has been found. * * * A great many specimens were shown me, some as heavy as four or five ounces in weight. * * * You will perceive that some of the specimens accompanying this, hold mechanically pieces of quartz; that the surface is rough, and evidently moulded in the rocks. This gold cannot have been carried far by water, but must have remained near where it was first deposited from the rock that once bound it. I inquired of many people if they had encountered the metal in its matrix, but in every instance they said that they had not, but that the gold was invariably mixed with washed gravel, or lodged in the crevices of other rocks. All stated that they had found gold, in greater or less quantities, in the numerous small ravines or gullies of that mountainous region." This is a general description of all the gold washings of the country, situation but slightly modifying the method of operation. It will be seen that it is almost identical with the method pursued in Brazil, and in Siberia, at first, before a scientific process had been adopted.

At length vast quantities were sent to the United States, and assayed by the officers of the United States, and by men of science. All concurred in representing it as unusually rich, and but slightly below the standard fineness of coin, which is 90.0. Valuable as the gold deposits, however, must be, shrewd observers have thought that it is of far less importance than are the immense beds of oxide of mercury, near Sutter's Fort. For all ages to come, money will be computed in America by a silver unit instead of a golden one, or eagles will be reckoned as the representatives of ten dollars, rather than a dollar as the equivalent of one-tenth of an eagle. So long as this is the case, the commerce of the world will be regulated by a silver standard. Now silver can most properly be made merchantable by the

use of quicksilver, the furnishing of which has always been a monopoly in a few hands. The vast quantities in California, it is not unlikely, will place the control with the United States, and make the great mines now worked by the Rothschilds, near Madrid, and those of the Carpathian mountains, the labour in which has been interrupted by the Hungarian troubles, merely subsidiary to the Californian mines.

The Jesuits were long ago aware of these quicksilver mines; but the Spanish crown owning all similar works in Spain, they were sure they would not be permitted to work them, and therefore kept the discovery a secret. They often, however, sent valuable collections of agates and emeralds to Europe, and in almost every convent of the brothers of Jesus, is some wonderful casket adorned with gems derived from this far-away land. Every hunter and engage of the fur companies, tells the story of some wonderful valley, on the summit of the hills, surrounding which are masses of precious stones, which glitter in the sun. There is in Lower California, or in the country south of the line reaching from the confluence of the Gila with the Pacific, a pearl fishery of many hundred miles' length, which there is every reason to believe, extends as far north as the bay of San Francisco, in the waters of which valuable pearls and oysters have frequently been found. Men will, however, scarcely dive into the depths of the sea in search of precarious fortune, when patient toil and industry on land will yield them an ample supply of the metal which is the synonyme of power.

Though in the preceding pages reference has frequently been made to the history of California, a brief yet succinct account may not be uninteresting or irrelevant. California was first discovered by a portion of that adventurous band which landed with De Soto on the coast of Florida, and marched from thence through the intricacies of the Alleghany, across the Mississippi to the coast of Cubican, in Sonora. The leader of the remnant of this party of adventurers was Panfilo de

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Narvaez, who, probably from some physical deformity, was known as *Cabeza de Vaca*, or Cow's Head. While in that far-off land, De Vaca heard the story of the vast wealth of a country yet beyond, and sent a detachment of his three hundred men as far probably as the mouth of the Colorado. He strangely enough lived to return to Cuba, and told in the old city of Ysybel marvellous tales, which not only were believed by all the people of Spain and her dominions, but the old soldier was abused because he did not tell enough—just as Mr. Polk and his cabinet are charged with having suppressed information, because what they report as facts does not satisfy the cupidity of the country. *Cabeza de Vaca's* stories are, however, wonderful enough.

What the soldier did not do, however, another person was found to effect. Marcos de Nizza, a missionary, sent out at the request of the government, to convert the Indians, went far beyond the coast of California. He gratified and satisfied even Spanish cupidity by a picture of a highly-cultivated people, quite the equals of Montezumas' Indians; and told wonderful tales of the cities of Cibola, eight in number, with houses of four stories, and doors, like "those of the Arabs and Moors of Morocco and Grenada." For a long time no one believed this, but not long ago, Major Emory, of the U. S. topographical engineers, found the ruins of one of these cities, and has presented in his book a pictorial representation of them. One folly led to another. While half of Spain was uncultivated, new expeditions were sent out, and Vasquez de Coronado added something to the wonderful stories about California. On his return there was another story current, of a great kingdom of Tatarax, and a city of Quivira, on the shores of Lake Tegnago, now identified as Lake Utah. Strangely enough, ruins are yet in existence on this lake which do give a faint colour to this relation. There were, however, some wise people who thought that Coronado, who had but recently married a young and pretty wife, was anxious to return home, shrank from danger, and did not accomplish half he

might have done. His return, therefore, added to the fury, because the less a country is known the more willingly do people place confidence in all kinds of stories relating to it; and people of old were quite as credulous about Californian gold as are the adventurous portion of the community at the present day.

Something of this spirit of exaggeration yet adheres to all relating to Mexico and California. The old monks would call a few miserable huts, and a hovel over which was placed a cross, a prosperous city; precisely as the map-makers and alcaldes call a half-dozen lodges a capital. This is the case with California, where a population of less than twenty-five thousand is strewn over a country large as the German Empire; where there is a city for every saint, and not a single manufacturer of the article for which the people had most need, bridle-bits, in the whole region. Long before the overland discovery of California, many voyages had been made in the Pacific; and after the partial exploration of the country, the idea of a passage between the Pacific and Atlantic, led many navigators to the latter ocean. The brilliant temptation held out to English cruisers by the exposed condition of the Mexican and Peruvian ports, also led thither, among others, Sir Francis Drake, who at an early date entered the present bay of San Francisco. As early as 1541, just fifty years after the discovery of Guahani, by Columbus, Ulloa, in an expedition authorized by Cortez, proved California to be a peninsula of the American continent, and not an island. In spite of this, as late as the time of Charles II., California was set down in charts as *Islas Carolinas*. The pearl fishermen from the Pacific coast of Mexico visited it frequently, until finally Sebastian Vizcaino took formal possession. About sixty years afterwards, the Jesuits established themselves in Lower California. The most interesting portion of the history of the country begins here. Some years later, the order extended themselves into Upper California, where they had to contend with the brothers of the order of Saint Francis. The astute men, however, who

had ruled so long the courts of princes, did not here find themselves at fault; and though brought into contact with the most stupid of all the American tribes, contrived to overcome their innate perversity and brutality. For a long time the fathers were without any military guard, and experienced much hardship. Things at last changed, and as their services came to be appreciated, not only the spiritual government of California was confided to them, but also civil power; and finally the military commandant was made their subordinate, and required to obey the orders of the father president.

The whole Californian gulf, and the ocean beyond the peninsula, was, between 1797 and 1721, surveyed and explored by fathers Kuhn, Salvatierra, and Ugarte. The accuracy of Castillo's old charts, which represented California as a peninsula, was then recognised. The power of the Jesuits increased until 1760, at which time they were masters of sixteen chief missions, and more than forty dependent stations. The opposition which the Jesuits ever opposed to the influence of the various *camarillas*, or kitchen-cabinets of the Spanish courts, caused their ultimate expulsion from all the dominions of Spain, when California became the feud of the Franciscans and monks of Saint Dominic of Mexico, under the influence of whom the prosperity of the country began to decay. For this there was a reason. The whole of the territory of Mexico was immediately subject, not to the pope, but to the royal audience of the Indians, the supreme court of appeal in civil as well as religious questions. This grand corporation, consequently, was all powerful, and all persons pandered to it. California alone was exempt from its authority, and, under the influence of the grand company of Loyola, improved, while the Franciscans and Dominicans ruined Mexico. When the two last obtained possession of California, it also suffered. Ultimately the Mexican revolution occurred, and California became a portion of the new republic. In gaining this position, California has played a part too insignificant to find a record in any history, and we

may well pass over all the petty cabals and collisions until a later period, marking only the one important change which almost made California a wilderness. The missions had been confided to Franciscans and Dominicans, who, though not equal to their predecessors, were yet in the main praiseworthy men, and something like government was kept up; but soon after the revolution, all the property of the missions was sequestered, and the monks were allowed only a pittance of their former revenues. Things daily became worse and worse, until finally the monks left California, one portion of them going to Europe to the general of their order, and the others to Mexico, where, lost amid the crowds of claimants on that nation, they in vain sought some farther indemnity for the great injustice perpetrated on them.

From time to time various foreigners had settled in the country, the industry and activity of whom had excited the envy and jealousy of the Californians, who, though brave, were idle and proud. The majority of these were citizens of the United States, who had come into the country across the prairie or desert, or descended along the Cascade Range into the fastnesses of the California Range, a continuation of the first-named mountains, which is the back bone of the habitable or arable portion of California. These men, among the most energetic of their country, soon began to interfere in politics, and, supporting the party of a person named Alvarado, succeeded in placing him in power, where he remained until 1840, when Alvarado, ungrateful to his friends, determined to expel all foreigners by force. They were seized under circumstances of great cruelty, many killed, and marched to Monterey, whence they were sent to Tepic. All their property was confiscated, and few or none of the Americans were suffered to return.

Many other misfortunes befel California, not the least of which was the small-pox, which swept off hordes of the Indians around the missions. The wild tribes also

attacked the Spanish herdsmen, or *rancheros*. Some little prosperity yet however lingered in California. This, however, was confined to the settlements around Sutter's establishment, and the villages, which, protected by foreign flags, had grown up around the Russian factories at Ross and Bodega, and the post of the Hudson's Bay Company.

These factories were mere trading establishments, which were considered to confer no territorial rights, more than similar establishments do in the remote countries of the east. They were always considered as existing by permission, not by right.

The only other portion of the history of California which need detain us until we come to the war with Mexico, was the occupation of the port of Monterey by Com. T. Ap C. Jones, of the U. S. navy, in 1842. This gentleman, then in command of the naval force of the United States in the Pacific, learned, while on the coast of Peru, that the British government had purchased from Gen. Santa Anna the whole of California, and that a fleet was then in *rendezvous* at the Sandwich Islands, under command of Admiral Lord George Paulet, to occupy the country. Under these circumstances, Com. Jones immediately seized the port of Monterey, to make any instructions which might have been sent the English admiral abortive. Whether the sale was effected or not, it was never carried into effect, and Monterey was returned to the Mexican authorities. There is little doubt that the American minister at Mexico was duped by the British plenipotentiary, who foresaw the action of the United States in the premises, and thereby wished to establish a precedent to justify the occupation of the Sandwich Islands, which was soon after done. The universal censure of the whole world on this act of the English, and the seizure of Tahiti by the French, who did not at once restore what they had taken when they saw they had no justification for retaining it, was loud and earnest, and all parties were forced finally to place things in *statu quo*. The course of Com. Jones was

probably in obedience to orders of the government, for he is a most prudent officer, learned not only in his profession, but in other matters. Though recalled by the secretary of the navy, he was immediately placed on high and important duty, and at this time commands the American squadron in the Pacific.

One of the first things resolved on by the United States after the commencement of the Mexican war, was the occupation of California; and at an early day, May 13, 1846, instructions were sent to Com. Sloat, of the navy, to occupy the country in case of war. On May 16, 1846, these orders were repeated, specifying the occupation of Monterey, and Mazatlan, and San Francisco.

Stephen W. Kearny, colonel of dragoons, and one of the best officers in any country, was ordered to occupy California, after he should have obtained possession of New Mexico, by a land expedition. These two series of orders were the commencement of the official connection of the United States with California. The last of these orders was dated June 3, 1846. In 1845, the population of California, exclusive of Indians, was estimated at about 10,000 persons, one-half of whom were not of Spanish descent, and were, of course, dissatisfied with the government. Headed by Pico and others, these deposed the governor, and Pico obtained the command. Early in 1846, an order was issued by Castro, the military commandant, to remove the horses, and other public property, from San Rafael to Santa Clara. The officer charged with this order, on the route learned that a party of Americans, headed by Captain Fremont, U. S. corps of topographical engineers, was busy in surveying the Buttes, seventy miles above Nueva Helvetia. At once the American settlers, anxious for a fight, and alarmed by a report that Castro wished to seize Fremont, hurried to the camp of the latter. It turned out, however, that Castro had no such intention, wishing merely to exclude the American emigrants, then known to be on the route from the United States. The Ameri-

cans, however, determined to anticipate Castro, and at once seized his convoy of horses. This took place June 10. This was a revolution known as that of the Bear Flag, such being the device on a banner raised by a Mr. Meares and thirty-five men who formed the revolutionary army. They then captured Sonoma, a presidio or fort, opposite San Francisco, and with it nine guns, two hundred muskets, and several officers. Here a garrison, under the command of Captain Ides, was placed, and soon after a declaration of independence of Mexico was published. Castro also published another proclamation, calling on the people to defend the country.

Fremont then arrived at the Sacramento, where he learned that Sonoma was about to be attacked by Castro. This was June 23; and on the morning of the 25th he appeared in front of it, with a party of ninety men, a detachment of whom, twenty in number, met and attacked a party of Castro's dragoons, seventy strong. In this affair the Mexicans are said to have lost nine pieces of brass artillery. Secure thus in possession of Sonoma, Fremont organized a government, of which he made himself the head, and determined to attack Castro. While in pursuit of him towards *Ciudad de los Angeles*, whither he had fled, he learned that Monterey had been occupied by the naval commander. A combined expedition, under Fremont and Stockton, was then commenced, which resulted in the occupation of Los Angeles, 13th January, 1847. Stockton then appointed Fremont governor.

We now will return to Gen. Kearny. After occupying New Mexico, that officer, at the head of a large force, marched towards California. Scarcely, however, had he reached the Rio del Norte, when he encountered an express from Stockton, informing him of all that had occurred. He therefore sent back all of his command except a mere escort. After a march of incredible difficulty, Gen. Kearny reached Agua Caliente, the eastern frontier settlement of California, where he was met by a small party commanded by Captain Gillespie, which

informed him that California was in revolt, and that a force of 700 or 800 was under arms in the field.

Hurrying on, on the 6th December Gen. Kearny encountered the enemy at San Pasqual, whom he immediately attacked and routed, after a sharp contest, in which he lost Captains Moore and Johnston, and Lieut. Hammond, of the first dragoons; and in which he was himself wounded in two places, as were also Lieut. Warner, topographical engineers, and Captains Gillespie and Gibson, of the volunteers. Two sergeants, two corporals, ten privates of the dragoons were killed, and as many more wounded. The enemy numbered one hundred and sixty men, were commanded by Andreas Pico, and were well mounted. Gen. Kearny's force was less than one hundred men. On the next day Gen. Kearny was joined by a detachment of sailors and marines; and having till then been detained by the cares necessary for the dead and wounded, continued his march.

On the 8th and 9th of December he was again attacked, driving the enemy before him with small loss to himself; and on the 10th, while a fugitive, Castro encountered Fremont, to whom he capitulated. Unfortunate difficulties then ensued, in consequence of Captain Stockton's refusing to recognise the right of General Kearny to command, which created much sensation in the United States. Commodore Biddle, however, having arrived on the coast, assumed command of the naval forces, sustained Kearny, and sent Stockton to the United States. Colonel Fremont was subsequently arrested, tried, found guilty, and sentenced to be dismissed the service. Though the punishment was remitted, he immediately resigned. Colonel R. B. Mason, first dragoons, was subsequently appointed to the command of California, as civil and military governor, and at the last advices was exercising the authority. Two governors, Brig. Gen. Riley, and Major Gen. P. F. Smith, U. S. army, have since been appointed, but at the latest advices neither had reached the Pacific.

There are various routes from the Atlantic to the Pa-

cific, which may be divided into the maritime and overland. Of these two classes, the first will always be the most expensive, and, as a general rule, far beyond the means of those who emigrate for the purpose of bettering their condition. The other routes have many inconveniences, and also many advantages. As long as the prairie shall be inhabited only by wild Indians, there will be difficulties to affright the timid; but so long as food and transportation can be had, at the price of exertion alone for the needy, poor and adventurous men will rather choose to risk life for prospective riches, than endanger money they have already acquired, for the attainment of a possible yet uncertain wealth. The outfit for the latter of these routes, that across the country, will be small indeed. To a man starting from any one of the frontier posts, few things would be necessary. The outfit will consist of but a couple of horses, or mules would be better, born of some hardy race, used to subsist without grain, and used to the hardships of hunting and frontier life. One of these animals should be broken to the saddle, and the other equipped with a pack-saddle, and all its accompaniments, such as *sagues*, *porflechies*, girths, etc., most difficult to be described, yet to be purchased without difficulty at any frontier town. The mule broken to the pack-saddle should be light, yet strong, sure-footed, and able to cross the deep and swampy streams which intervene at almost every part of the route. The emigrant should be clad in stout and strong woollen apparel, which never will be found uncomfortable on the prairies, either in midsummer or December. The other equipment of the emigrant should be a Colt's rifle, or a good yager rifle, a hunting knife, and a supply of ammunition. Above all things, a man should not forget a strong, stout, horseman's cloak, or poncho, and blankets, with a bear-skin or India-rubber cloth, to protect him from the damp and rain. Tents are of very little value to men, because they never exclude fog, and it is as well to be wetted through by the rain as by it.

If women and children are of the party, no other direction can be given than to lay in a larger supply of provisions, with a few of the luxuries necessary to a tenderer age and sex; and to procure a large wagon, which may be drawn either by mules or neats-cattle. A practice for a few years past has been adopted by the Santa Fe traders, which is not unmeaning. In every caravan are always three or four milch-cows, which are broken to the yoke, and which, if of docile temper, have been discovered to be quite as serviceable as oxen. The value of the latter in parties of which women and children are members, will be found most important; and persons who have once experienced the benefit to be derived from it, will not fail to avail themselves of it again.

No reasonable man will expect to cross the prairie with as many facilities as he may travel from Washington city to Boston. He will remember that he has to cross deserts, to ascend rugged mountains, to ford deep streams, and will at once see that association will increase his facilities and add to his advantages. He will pass through many hostile tribes; be brought into contact with the most dangerous men of the world, when they are met by the unarmed and defenceless. A band of one hundred, or even fifty men, well armed and well equipped, would be able to set at defiance all who might attack them. If the animals and wagons were at the first moderately loaded, they would, one after the other, become empty; and as the mules of the party became exhausted, other stronger ones of the train, which had previously been relieved, might supply their places. A few dollars judiciously expended in the purchase of trinkets and luxuries, such as the Indians of the prairie especially covet, would purchase many conveniences, and act most favourably on the half-civilised tribes, in inducing them to exchange fresh animals for those worn with the road. Every party, large or small, should be provided with a compass, and, if possible, with a person capable of taking an altitude, and ascertaining by ob-

ervation the latitude, etc. If the party be large, it is most advisable that it should be accompanied by a blacksmith, with a set of shoeing-tools, and a small supply of iron, to replace bolts which may become lost or broken. In replacing these there will be no difficulty, an excellent substitute for an anvil being constantly at hand, either in the form of the masses of rock frequently to be found in the prairie, and in the low and timbered land in the tire of the vehicle itself which is to be mended. The point of departure for the overland route, it is difficult to define. The person setting out from the United States should seek the nearest point of the frontier, where the last conveniences may be had. Of such points, the two best are probably Fort Smith, on the Arkansas, or Independence, on the Missouri. When the whole party has rendezvoused, it should move a few miles and encamp, for the purpose of seeing if there may not be some deficiencies in the equipment, and for the purpose also of an organization of the expedition; for without some system of control, it will be impossible to make a prairie march of two thousand miles. When these objects are effected, the party might set out. If Independence be the starting point, no better direction can be given than to keep the old Santa Fe caravan route, which crosses the Arkansas River at the point where the old line of the boundary of New Mexico and the Indian territory meets that river, and to follow it by Albuquerque, on the Rio Puerto, a branch of the Del Norte, to the town of Tomé, on the last-named river. So far there will not be the least difficulty. At the settlements on the Del Norte, mules to replace the exhausted ones should be obtained, fresh provisions purchased, etc. Now come the hardships of the route. The travellers thence must follow the route of Gen. Kearny, down the Gila to San Diego, thence up the coast to the bay of San Francisco, or whatever be the bourne. The route from Fort Smith would, from Tomé to San Francisco, be identical with this, and probably during the early part, far more convenient—passing through the

country of the Cherokees and Creeks, up the Canadian, to about longitude 24° west from Washington, and across the prairie, over the head waters of the Red River, to Tomé. Both of these routes are well known, having been crossed repeatedly by the United States' dragoons, and the traders to Santa Fe. On all maps the route of Col. Fremont is laid down, passing southward of the limits of the tract of country called the Great Basin. This is a good route, yet inferior to the two first, from the reason that it is always desirable, for the sake of grass, etc., to keep in as low a latitude as possible. There may be a route better than any yet travelled, down the valley of the Colorado, which is a large stream; but, if so, it has not as yet been travelled. Major Ph. St. George Cooke, second dragoons, made a variation from Gen. Kearny's route, on his way to California with the Mormon battalion, in the following respects. Continuing for thirty miles down the Gila, he made a detour southward, returning to the route of Gen. Kearny near the village of the Pimos and Maricopas. The change was important, as the route of Major Cooke was across a level country, without hills, and for many miles along an old wagon-road from Vanos, in Chihuahua. The above are the chief overland routes to California, and far the best for persons with small means. The most pleasant, however, by far, of all the routes, are those across the Mexican republic, either from Tampico to Guyamas, or from Vera Cruz *via* Mexico, to Acapulco, and thence up the coast of the Pacific, or of the gulf of California. These routes are expensive and inconvenient, from the fact that little or no baggage can be taken; and must, therefore, be always a line of merely incidental, not regular travel. The routes from the Atlantic ports to Chagres, on the Isthmus of Panama, are, to a degree, liable to the same objection. The voyage from New York thither occupies usually fifteen days. From Chagres to Panama the country is crossed by canoes, and part of the way in the saddle, in between two and three days. From this point to San Francisco is

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twenty-four hundred miles, and will occupy not less than twenty-four days, when we take into consideration the uncertainty of the communication which must for a long time exist on the Pacific. The expense on this route will not fall short of three hundred dollars. There are steamers running also from New Orleans to Chagres. Any amount of freight or baggage can be taken without trouble to the latter place; but there will be much difficulty in conveying it, in miserable *bungos*, up the river, or on mules, over the mountain road, which probably has not been touched since the Mexican revolution. It may also be taken, when once at Panama, easily to California. The only other route is that from the Atlantic ports, around the Horn, a voyage of great length, of variable cost, and of a duration upon which no seaman-ship can certainly pronounce. One thing, however, is certain; it cannot occupy less than six months, and in all probability will demand a year at the least. The cost of the voyage, including stores, etc., will not be less than five hundred dollars, for what is ordinarily called a first-class passage. All of these voyages, so far, have been presumed to be by steam. The voyage by sail would perhaps be more pleasant, and, in most cases, more expeditious; for with a fair wind (and those of the Pacific may be calculated with certainty), a ship or brig of correct mould will generally go faster than a steamer. The sail vessels, too, will always be the cheapest; although as intercourse becomes more frequent, when the present rush shall have become less, freight and passage will also decrease. The voyage to the Pacific was once one of great variety, vessels touching at Bahia, Rio Janeiro, Buenos Ayres. The coasts of Patagonia, Valparaiso, Guayaquil, Acapulco, and perhaps the Sandwich Islands, were also visited; and the traveller saw, in one voyage, a fourth of the world. Climates of all kinds, many nations and races, were seen. This will not happen again. Ships will leave New York with full freights for San Francisco, and the passenger can scarcely expect to touch the shore, from the time he

leaves an Atlantic port until he reaches California. Other routes will ultimately be opened, and time will modify those known to exist at present. It may not, however, be improper even now to refer to these.

Schemes for railroads to the Pacific have been placed on foot by various projectors, the most prominent of whom was a gentleman named Wilkes, of New York. The end of his line was, however, to be Oregon, which has been placed out of the question by the recent California excitement. Mr. Wilkes' scheme had reference exclusively to Oregon, and the immense current of trade to be expected across the Pacific from India. All Ormus' pearls have, however, been insignificant, compared with the gold of California.

Steamboats can scarcely ever usurp the place of sail vessels between the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of the United States, for many reasons. It is not to be expected that the United States will soon acquire any colony on the South American continent, and the immense burden of coal necessary for a sea navigation of more than ten thousand miles, will be so great, as to eat up the advantages otherwise to be acquired by speed. Port charges make it impossible for steamers to stop for fuel at the shore of another nation, and therefore sail vessels will long continue to be the most usual mode of communication between the two coasts. Heavy freight will not bear any transportation where the motive power is animal strength, and therefore, for some centuries, the old mode of "weathering the Horn" will continue. In making this immense voyage time is lost and danger run, which persons travelling rapidly will seek to avoid, precisely as for some time past the exigencies of the British government have made necessary the Aden route to Bengal. This can best be done by a canal across some one of the isthmus' of Mexico or Guatemala. For more than a century the feasibility of this scheme has been a subject of great consideration, and many scientific men have lent their minds to elucidating its various bearings. Among those persons who have made it a

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subject of consideration was the famous Baron Humboldt, to whom Spain, in violation of the rule she seemed to have marked out for herself in regard to her colonies, unfolded all the information which, during the course of centuries, had been acquired by her officials of every grade. This savant, consequently, without a personal examination, was able to throw on the matter so distinct a light, that even now his authority continues to be considered almost decisive on the matter. He indicates five different points of what is now known as Central America, or in Mexico, where a passage may be had :

1st. At the Isthmus of Darien.

2d. In the Colombian Province of Choco.

3d. At the Isthmus of Tehuantepec.

4th. By way of Lake Nicaragua.

5th. At the Isthmus of Panama.

In relation to the first, there are two manifest difficulties ; the principal of which is, that the isthmus is sixty miles long, and very mountainous, without any river other than the Santa Maria, which would require to be canalised its full length. The isthmus is also crossed longitudinally by a lofty chain of mountains, which must necessarily be divided to render the scheme at all practicable. It is besides cursed with a most unhealthy climate, which, in spite of many advantages offered by ports on both seas, has always prevented its being populated. It is doubtful whether any labourers unacclimated (and such a work cannot be accomplished by any of the present South American races), can resist its fatal effects.

The union through the Choco could be effected, at a very slight expense ; but the shallow waters of the Avalo, which runs into the north, and the Noanona, emptying into the south seas, even if united, could only admit vessels of very light draught. The commerce of the world, however, being carried on by three-masted vessels, such a communication, with only eight feet of water at the deepest, would be valueless.

Of all the routes, Humboldt preferred the one through Tehuantepec, believing that at the port of Guasacoalco, on the gulf, a river existed of far more depth than recent examinations have shown the stream to possess. The Chimolapa he also thought a very deep stream. It has been however ascertained that in accomplishing this work there are many difficulties, not the least of which are the breadth of the isthmus, and the great unhealthiness of the climate.

The Isthmus of Panama and Lake Nicaragua remain, and to these, of late years, attention has been exclusively directed, under the auspices of the republic of Guatemala and Columbia. The principal of these plans are the following :

Barclay & Co., of London, proposed, Sept. 18, 1824, to the authorities of Guatemala, to effect a passage through Lake Nicaragua; and, 2d Feb., 1825, Burke and Ilanos made the same offer.

A contract between Guatemala and Palmer & Co., of New York, was signed June 16th, 1848, to make a canal along the Rio de San Juan, and to unite Lake Nicaragua to the Pacific. The king of Holland at the same time made the same offer.

In 1829, Bolivar sent engineers to examine the country between Chagres, and intended to employ the army of Colombia in making the canal.

In June, 1831, and October, 1833, the congress of Panama authorised any company which would accept certain conditions, to open a canal or railroad. And again, in 1833, Baron Thierry obtained permission to open a canal between the Rio Chagres and Quebra Grande.

March 3, 1835, the congress of the United States sent out an agent to look into this scheme. The officer, however, instead of attending to his employer's interest, obtained a grant in favour of himself. Thus was lost to the United States the glory of this enterprise.

The house of Solomon & Co., of Guadalupe, in May, 1838, obtained the grant which had previously been

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conceded to the agent of the United States. All of these plans failed; and recently a new company has been formed, which have an agent now at Panama, making a reconnoissance for a railroad, of the success of which there is no doubt. This will be but a temporary expedient, yet will answer for the time, and will be important, as it cannot but demonstrate the immense advantages to be derived from a perfect communication.

By way of Lake Nicaragua, there already exists an almost perfect communication through Lake Leon, and up the San Juan, which descends in a winding course to the Atlantic, about one hundred miles long. The lake itself is about eight fathoms deep. At the mouth is a bar, which, when once crossed, admits vessels into a roadstead of twenty-five feet deep, which continues a long way. It is said, however, that not more than four feet water can be depended on. The Marquis of Yceneni, and all others, agree that in the route are rocks, and great natural difficulties. The Lake of Nicaragua is large, being one hundred miles by forty, and has no outlet other than the San Juan, though many deep streams run into it. The San Juan has never been accurately explored, and much that is set down is conjectural. There is however one strong circumstance in favour of its navigability. The old Spanish government knew much of this country, and affixed the penalty of death to any attempt to navigate it. The object of this was to keep foreign curiosity, in relation to the route by Nicaragua, at bay. No such precautions were taken in relation to the others. There are, however, after the establishment of a communication with Nicaragua, other difficulties; a range of low hills would be required to be pierced, and there is certainly a difference between the level of the lake and the Pacific of one hundred and forty feet.

The Panama route is short, and should end at Chagres and Panama; and the country is *said* to be divided not by mountains, but by almost isolated hills, with low marshes between the peaks. There is also along a

great portion of the route an immense lagoon, which would dispense with much of the excavation. The great difficulty, the inequality of the level of the two seas, is not so great as it is thought, for at two periods of each day and night, they are at the same level precisely.

Ultimately a communication will be effected somewhere. On the route of Tehuantepec there are many advantages. During the rainy season, even now, there is a communication for boats from sea to sea. The isthmus has also many deep rivers; two of which, one running into the gulf, and the other to the Pacific, are navigable for vessels of the largest size to within twenty leagues of each other. There is also a good wagon road across the isthmus, which, even now, may be crossed in fourteen hours. There is no doubt but that some day there will be a communication for large vessels here.

In the following correspondence which has been published by authority, since the last pages were written, the reader will find the ideas of the best *route* inculcated by this book, warmly urged by persons who have long been familiar with the Santa Fe and California trade. It is important enough to be published entire.

WASHINGTON, February 2, 1849.

Dear Sir,—In answer to your inquiries concerning the emigrating party from Arkansas to California, which will set off about the first of April next, I herewith enclose you a communication from the adjutant-general, covering a copy of a letter of instructions to General Arbuckle, with which he has been kind enough to furnish me. From this, you will see that an escort of troops has been ordered to accompany this party, at least as far as Santa Fe. In connection with this expedition, also, as you will see, an officer of topographical engineers has been ordered to make a reconnoissance of the route travelled, and to report, &c. I need not remark upon the advantages this action of the government will confer upon the expedition—in affording security to all who may desire to avail themselves of this

opportunity to visit our farthest western possessions. But the great benefit to the country I anticipate from the movement, is the settlement, in great part, at least, of the mooted question, *Which is the shortest and best route to California?*"

Herewith I send you, also, slips from the Fort Smith Herald, consisting of an editorial of that paper, and the circular of the leaders of the emigrating party. These, I doubt not, will be read with interest by all who desire to go to California; and I assure you the statements, alike of the editorial and the circular, may be confidently relied upon.

I will add, that at this time, and from this until late in the spring or summer, Fort Smith is entirely accessible, on steamboats of good size and excellent accommodations, by way of the Arkansas river. To this add the estimate of only *one hundred days* for the overland travel from Fort Smith to San Francisco, which I consider very reasonable, and it will be found that this route already compares favourably, *as to time*, with any other proposed route. And when the certainty and safety of this expedition, together with the salubrity of the country and climate through which it will pass, are further considered, its advantages and inducements to emigrate strike the mind in admirable contrast with those of any and every other. The trip from almost any portion of the eastern or middle states to Fort Smith can be made with entire convenience and comfort on steamboats and railroads, within *three weeks* at farthest. Thus, only *one hundred and twenty days*, or *four months*, will be sufficient to place the emigrant, from the most distant point in the United States, at San Francisco; and that, too, over a route which, for safety, certainty, and freedom from disease, has no rival. Who would expect to reach San Francisco by way of the Isthmus of Panama, now regarded as the most expeditious and almost the only route, within a time much shorter than I have estimated for the other? especially when the almost inevitable delay at Panama, waiting for transportation, is considered; and encountering, at the same

time, the discomforts and perils of a sea voyage for a distance of at least fifteen hundred miles, even from New Orleans to Chagres, and about double that distance from Panama to San Francisco—to say nothing of the hazards of the general insalubrity of the tropics to unclimatized persons, and the particular pestilential atmosphere of Chagres—and leaving out of the account the troublesome and expensive travel across the isthmus. The Fort Smith route is free from all these very serious, and, to many persons, insuperable objections; while over the more northern overland route from Independence, heretofore generally travelled, to Santa Fe, it has the very important and desirable advantages of a shorter distance by about one hundred miles—of an earlier season (for grass upon the prairies) of about three weeks—of supplies of corn and other provisions for about two hundred miles on the way—and of an abundance of wood and water the whole distance.

As I have received many letters of inquiry similar to your own from various portions of the country, and as a press of business puts it out of my power to answer them, you may, if you think proper, make this, with its enclosures, public, for the information of all who may desire such information as it conveys.

I am, very respectfully and truly, yours,

SOLON BORLAND.

Col. JNO. C. McCLEMORE, Washington city.

—
ADJUTANT GENERAL'S OFFICE, Jan. 23, 1849.

Dear Sir,—The secretary of war, having referred to this office your communication of the 10th instant, requesting an escort of dragoons for a party of citizens of Arkansas, who design proceeding to Santa Fe in April next, I have the pleasure to enclose you a copy of a letter of instructions of this date, addressed to Brevet Brigadier General Arbuckle, by which you will see that the war department has fully complied with your request.

I am, dear sir, very truly yours, R. JONES.

Hon. S. BORLAND, U. S. Senate, Washington, D. C.

ADJUTANT GENERAL'S OFFICE.

Washington, Jan. 23, 1849.

General,—Senator Borland, of Arkansas, has stated to the secretary of war that a party of citizens of that state are desirous, some to emigrate and others to trade in the territories of New Mexico and California, provided that the party be protected by a military escort. The plan proposed is, for such citizens, as may be desirous of making the exploration, to rendezvous early in April at Fort Smith or Van Buren, and proceed to Santa Fe, along the valley of the Canadian river, &c. The secretary of war, being anxious to obtain information with respect to this route, as well as desirous of affording proper facilities for such explorations as the one contemplated, and with a view of opening new avenues for emigration to our newly-acquired territory, he deems it expedient to authorize the desired protection; and you are accordingly requested to organize a suitable escort to accompany the party as far as Santa Fe.

As you have no dragoons at this time within your department, a detachment of one officer and thirty men from company F, at Fort Scott, has been ordered to report to you in person.

Inform the citizens of Fort Smith at what time the troops will be in readiness to move.

It is intended that an officer of topographical engineers shall accompany the detachment, to make a reconnaissance of the route, report, &c.

Enclosed herewith you will receive special orders (No. 6) of this date, making the details referred to.

I am, General, very respectfully, your obedient serv't,

R. JONES, Adj't. Gen.

Bvt. Brig. Gen. M. ARBUCKLE,

Comd'g 7th Mil. Dept., Fort Smith, Arkansas.

EMIGRANTS TO CALIFORNIA.—We call the attention of individuals and companies in the various states of the union, who are preparing to proceed to California, to the circular of the Fort Smith Company, in a subsequent

column. We have now a plenty of water in our river, offering a fine opportunity for forwarding freight without delay to the rendezvous at Fort Smith.

Ho! FOR CALIFORNIA.—We publish below a copy of a circular, which has been issued on a letter sheet, by the agents of the company making up for California. The great amount of letters received on the subject it was found impossible to answer; therefore it was deemed the best plan to send forth the circular, and embrace in it all of the necessary information that might be thought requisite.

For the information of the public, we would state that this place, *Fort Smith*, has between five hundred and a thousand inhabitants, and that it is steadily increasing in population. Buildings are going up constantly. The military post at this place is in no way connected with the town, but lies without its corporate limits, partly in the state and partly in the Choctaw nation. In regard to business, perhaps no place within the limits of this state, of the same amount of population, can boast of doing as much in the way of trade. There are several wholesale mercantile houses, besides a large number of retail stores. All are doing well; and although the past season has been one of unprecedented dullness in consequence of the low stage of water in the river, which has prevented several of the merchants from receiving their goods, yet business has been, and continues, brisk. Mechanics of every trade, almost, may be found here. There are a number of *blacksmith* and *wagon-maker shops*, where work is done as well and as cheap as at any other point in the western country. Carpenters are all busily engaged in the building of houses; and here we would remark, that one evidence of the prosperity of *Fort Smith*, is, that vacant houses cannot be found sufficient to meet the demand of those who wish to rent. Provisions can be purchased as cheap here as at any other place in the United States, not excepting Cincinnati or St. Louis.

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The persons wishing to unite with the company for California, will see at once that in starting from this place every necessary for an outfit may be procured at very low prices, and the transportation will thus be saved. Even horses, mules, oxen, wagons, &c., may all be purchased here on very reasonable terms.

We had some conversation a few days ago with a gentleman (Mr. Thomas Aird) on the subject of the California expedition. Mr. A. is an intelligent man, and is engaged in trade among the Creeks and Seminoles, about one hundred and eighty miles from this town, on Gregg's trace. He states that the road from this place to his trading-house is good, and, with a little work, it might be made a first-rate road; and that those Indians have a large surplus of corn and beef, which could be purchased at very low prices. The Creeks are a very civil, industrious people, and always raise an abundance of produce. The Seminoles are very friendly and civil to the whites. This route is settled about two hundred miles, and there is a plain wagon road for that distance, within four hundred miles of Santa Fe and Albuquerque; which latter place is on the direct way to California.

We would invite all those persons who are intending to emigrate to the delightful and healthful region of California, to come this way, and unite with the company now forming here, which is increasing in numbers daily; and we can assure them with certainty that they will find this the shortest and best route, affording accommodations that can be found on no other. Our information is obtained from good and reliable authority, such as cannot be questioned.

Undoubtedly practicable, it must continue the popular route, and is, in the opinion of the writer, the only *certain* road to California.

APPENDIX.

DESCRIPTION OF GOLD IN ITS VARIOUS STATES — METHODS OF TESTING ITS GENUINENESS, ETC.

GOLD, in chemistry and metallurgy, is a yellow metal of specific gravity 19.3. It is found in nature only in a metallic state, and most commonly in grains, ramifications, leaves or crystals, rhomboidal, octahedral, or pyramidal. Its matrix is generally quartz, sandstone, siliceous schistus, &c. It is found also in the sands of many rivers, particularly in Africa, Hungary, and France, in minute irregular grains, called gold dust. Native gold is never completely pure; it is alloyed with silver or copper, and sometimes with iron and tellurium. The largest piece of native gold discovered in Europe, was found in the county of Wicklow, Ireland. Its weight was 22 ounces. Much larger lumps have been found in South America; and in Cabarrus county, North Carolina, a piece was found, weighing 28 pounds, to say nothing of the large lumps recently picked up in Upper California. The gold hitherto found in California has been obtained chiefly on the American and Feather rivers, branches of the Sacramento. It exists in the sand and gravel in the bottoms of the rivers and creeks, and in the earth on their banks. Various simple machines have been invented for working it, but the mode generally pursued is as follows: one or two shovelfulls of earth are thrown into a tin pan or wooden bowl, which is then placed an inch or two under water; the operator stirs up the dirt, so that the running water will carry off the lighter matter, occasionally throwing out with his hand the stones and gravel. After continuing this operation for fifteen or twenty minutes, a small quantity of black sand

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and gravel remains, which is placed on a cloth or handkerchief, and dried in the sun, when the lightest particles being blown off, the pure gold remains. In some of this black sand the metal exists in particles from the size of a pin's head to the weight of an eighth of an ounce. In other cases it is obtained in small flat or slightly rounded scales, similar, except in weight and colour, to fish scales. It has been likewise found in the fissures of the rocks, or pockets, as these deposits are called, in pieces of considerable size and value.

The following is Kirwan's arrangement of the ores of gold :

Species 1.—Native gold. Its colour yellow, more or less dilute, or brownish-red, like Spanish snuff, malleable and flexible. Found either in compact masses; or in spangles, inlaying or disseminated; or capillary, arborescent, ramified, interwoven, or dentiform; or crystallised in cubic, pyramidal, prismatic, or tabular forms; or in grains visibly or invisibly mixed with various other substances. External lustre, 3. Internal, 2. Metallic. Fracture, hackly. Hardness, 5. Specific gravity exceeds 12, more or less in proportion to the quantity of silver or copper with which it is commonly alloyed, and the cavities it may contain.

The substances in or on which it is found are either stony, sandy, earthy, or inflammable, or ores of other metallic substances. Of the first, the most common is quartz, siliceous schistus, hornstone, sandstone, spar, gypsum, &c., in Hungary, Transylvania, Bohemia, &c.; or trap, or jasper, felspar, or in clays, as in Bohemia; or in the sand of various rivers, in different countries, as Hungary, France, Africa, &c.: particularly in the yellowish-red, and violet sands. It is so generally interspersed through earths of various kinds, that Bergman thinks it more extensively diffused, though in exceedingly small quantities, than any other metal, except iron.

If 100 lbs. of sand contain 24 grs. of gold, it is said the separation is worth attention. In Africa 5 lbs. of

sand often contains 62 grs. of gold. The heaviest, which is often black or red, yields most. Gold interspersed through sand, is often separated by mere mechanical means. Native gold is sometimes invisibly dispersed and disguised, sometimes visibly contained in the form of a brownish-red powder in martial pyrites, as in that in Adelfors in Sweden, and also in Norway, Bohemia, and Siberia. It seems now agreed that it is not really mineralised in these ores. For it is often extracted from them by the mere mechanical means of pounding and washing, or at least from the residuum left after solution in the nitrous acid; its quantity is generally very small, scarcely above 8 grs. in 10,000 of the ore, or 1 oz., or $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz. in 1 cwt. of the ore. That of Facebay, in Transylvania, however, contains 12.5 per cent. of gold.

Gold is also extracted from a particular sort of argenteriferous copper pyrites, called, in Hungary, gelf. This is found either massive, or crystallised in rhomboids, or other irregular quadrangular or polygon masses. Its contents in gold and silver are rich, but very unequal: much of the gold may be separated by pounding and washing. Muller concludes that gold exists in it in a state of dispersion, and not combined nor consequently mineralised.

Native gold is found, 1. In solid masses. In Hungary, Transylvania, and Peru. 2. In grains. In the Spanish West Indies. 3. In a vegetable form, like the branches or twigs of plants. 4. In a drusic figure, as if composed of groups or clusters of small particles united together, found in Hungary. 5. Composed of thin plates, on thin pellicles covering other bodies, found in Siberia. 6. In a crystalline form in Hungary. Gold is also found in the form of thick solid pieces. It is in general more frequently imbedded in quartz, and mixed with it than with any other stone; and the quartz in which the gold is found in the Hungarian mines, is of a peculiarly mild appearance. Sometimes, however, it is found in limestone, hornblende, &c.

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TESTS.

Perfectly pure gold may be obtained, by dissolving the gold of commerce in nitro-muriatic acid, and precipitating the metal, by adding a weak solution of sulphate of iron. The precipitate, after being well washed and dried, is pure gold.

Pure gold is very soft, tough, ductile, and malleable, unaltered by the most powerful furnaces, but volatilised by the intense heat of powerful burning mirrors; and it has been driven up in fumes by a stream of oxygen urged upon it when red hot. The electric shock converts it into a purple oxide, as may be seen by transmitting that commotion through gold leaf, between two plates of glass; or by causing the explosive spark of three or more square feet of coated glass to fall upon a gilded surface. A heat of 32° W., or perhaps 1300° F. is required to melt it, which does not happen till after ignition. Its colour, when melted, is of a bluish-green; and the same colour is exhibited by light transmitted through gold leaf. But silver, copper, and all the rest of the metals which can be formed into leaves, are perfectly opaque.

No acid acts readily upon gold but aqua regia and aqueous chlorine. Chromic acid, added to muriatic, enables it to dissolve gold.

When gold is immersed in aqua regia, an effervescence takes place, and the solution tinges animal matters of a deep purple, and corrodes them. By careful evaporation, fine crystals of a topaz colour may be obtained. The gold is precipitated from its solvent by a great number of substances. Lime and magnesia precipitate it in the form of a yellowish powder. Alkalies exhibit the same appearance; but an excess of alkali redissolves the precipitate. The precipitate of gold, obtained from aqua regia by the addition of a fixed alkali, appears to be a true oxide, and is soluble in the sulphuric, nitric, and muriatic acids; from which, however, it separates by standing, or by evaporation of the

acids. Gallic acid precipitates gold of a reddish colour, very soluble in the nitric acid, to which it communicates a fine blue colour.

Ammonia precipitates the solution of gold much more readily than fixed alkalies. This precipitate, which is of a brown, yellow, or orange colour, possesses the property of detonating with a considerable noise when gently heated. It is known by the name of fulminating gold. When precipitated from this solution by tin, it forms the purple precipitate of Cassius, so much used in enamelling. This consists of an oxide of gold, mixed with an oxide of tin. Sulphurets precipitate gold from its solvent, the alkali uniting with the acid, and the gold falling down combined with the sulphur; of which, however, it may be deprived by moderate heat.

The solution of gold in sulphuric ether appears to crystallise after a considerable time. Mr. Sivright having allowed a solution of gold in sulphuric ether to stand four days in a vessel, with a cork and a piece of leather tied over it, found that a great part of the liquid had evaporated, leaving the gold in the form of a thin plate, which has the usual brightness of pure gold, and resembles the flat pieces of native copper found in Cornwall. There were distinct crystals in one or two parts of the plate.

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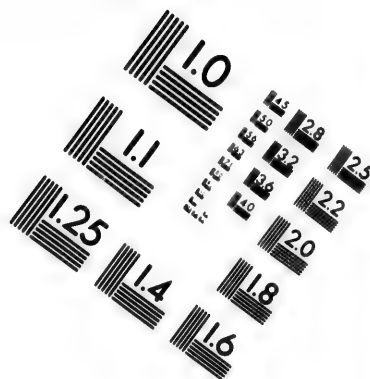
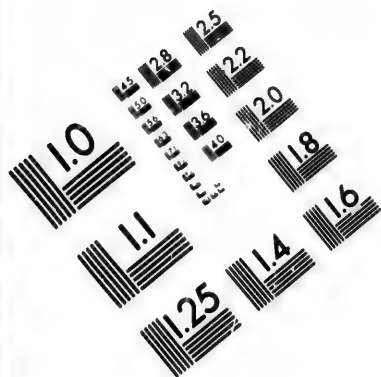
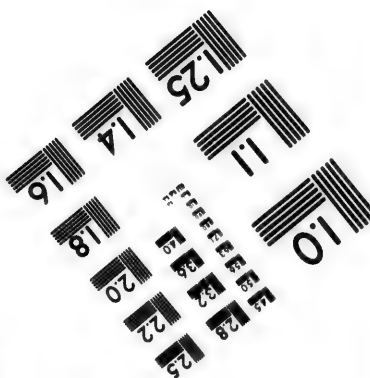
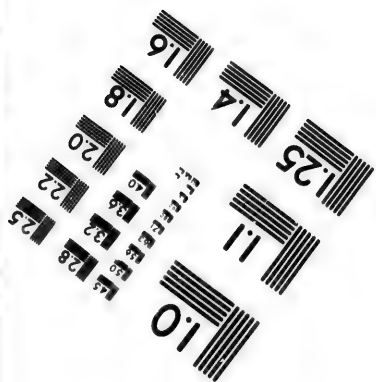
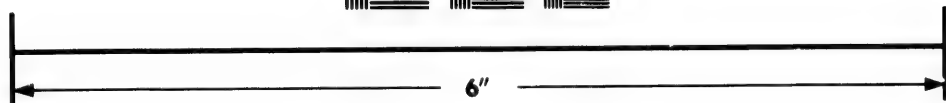
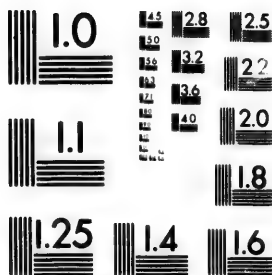


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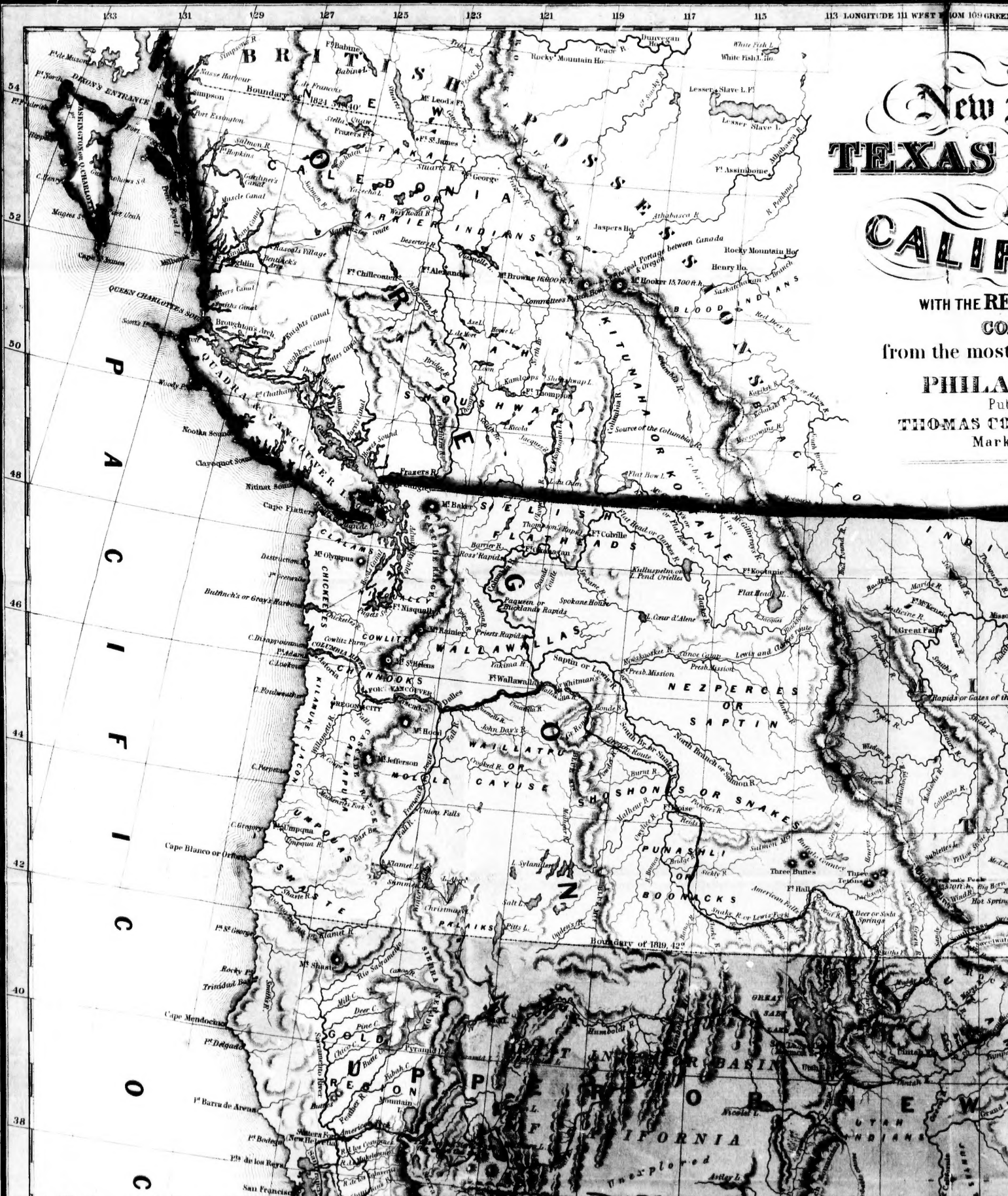


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